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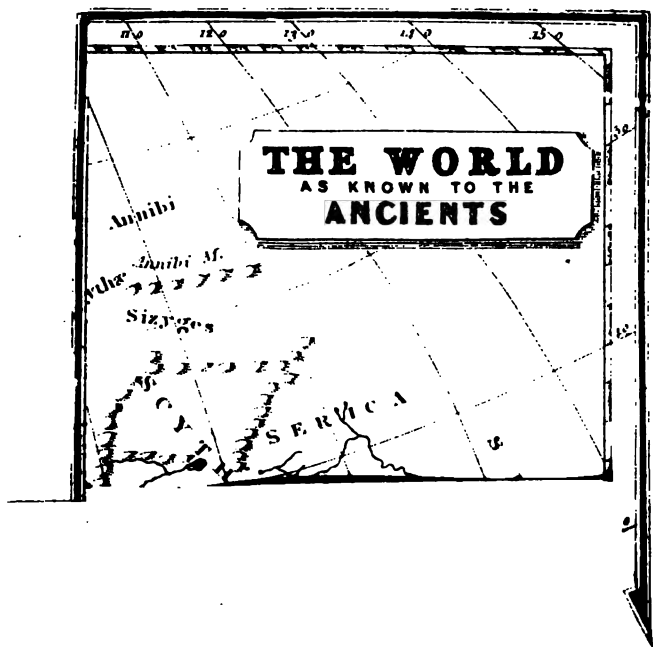




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1873.

221. 4. 97.



# ANCIENT HISTORY.

A SYNOPSIS OF  
THE RISE, PROGRESS, DECLINE AND FALL  
OF THE  
States and Nations of Antiquity.

BY  
REV. JOHN ROBINSON  
AND  
FRANCIS YOUNG.

In Four Volumes.

VOL. I.  
THE GREAT EMPIRES OF THE EAST.  
ETC., ETC.



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## INTRODUCTION.

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ANCIENT HISTORY, which commences with the creation of the World, an event that took place in 4004 B.C., according to the most commonly received system of chronology, is generally considered to terminate with the fall of the Western Empire, in 476 A.D. Mediæval History then begins, which terminates about the end of the fifteenth century, and forms the connecting link between Ancient and Modern History.

The first portion of Ancient History, the principal events of which are recorded in clear but simple language in Genesis, the first book of the Bible, ends with the Confusion of Tongues and the dispersion of the nations at Babel.

When different groups of men of diverse languages were thus constituted, each withdrew itself from the others to as great a distance as circumstances would permit; and, wandering eastward, westward, northward, and southward, these germs of future nationalities founded cities and formed settlements which in course of time developed, in some instances, into great nations and monarchies.

Of these, Egypt is considered to be the most ancient; and after considering the origin of man and the story of the great patriarchs of old, as far as we have been permitted to know it, precedence will be given in the following pages to the History of Egypt; and after a brief notice of the tribes of Canaan and the surrounding districts, and Arabia, the History of the Jews—the great God-favoured nation that descended from Abraham—will claim attention.

Next in order will follow accounts of the Chaldean, Assyrian, and Babylonian Empires, and the Empire of the Medes and Persians; and then, in due chronological course, the story, first, of the Grecian, and then of the Roman Empire. This, however, must be told at length in other volumes of the series, and at present it is merely necessary to direct the attention of the reader to this fact. With a brief history of Syria, Parthia, and Persia, and some notice of Carthage and the chief states of Northern Africa, as known to the ancients, this volume will *terminate*.



With reference to the contents of the four volumes of this series, in which the entire range of Ancient History is comprised, it may be as well to state that—

Vol. I. is devoted to a consideration of the chief States of Africa and South-Western Asia as known to the ancients, and comprises the Early History of Man, and the History of Egypt, the Jews, Chaldea, Assyria, Babylonia, Media, Persia, Syria, Parthia, and Carthage and the states of North-Western Africa.

Vol. II. contains the History of Greece, the Greek Colonies in Asia Minor, Sicily and the Coast of the Mediterranean Sea, with Pontus, Cappadocia, Pergamus, Armenia, and the countries contiguous to Asia Minor not treated in Vol. I.

Vol. III. contains the History of Rome as a Kingdom and Republic, and the series of struggles by which it became the arbiter of the Western World, from the Straits of Gibraltar, or Pillars of Hercules, to the Euphrates.

Vol. IV. contains the History of Rome as an Empire, and its subdivisions, the Western Empire and the Eastern Empire. This volume will also comprise as much Mediæval History as relates to the Eastern Empire, from the fall of the Western Empire to its own dissolution, and some account of the powerful tribes of Northern and Central Europe, that so often carried death and destruction into and through the Southern part of the Continent.

The subject matter in each volume has been broken into chapters and sections, and each section is followed by a Chronological Summary of the dates of the principal events to which allusion is made in the section.

The compiler has to express his obligations for the assistance derived from Smith's "Ancient History" and Rawlinson's "Five Great Monarchies" and "Sixth Oriental Monarchy."

LONDON, 1873.

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# A HISTORY OF THE GREAT EMPIRES OF THE EAST, ETC., ETC.

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## CHAPTER I.

### THE EARLY HISTORY OF MAN.

#### 1. FROM THE CREATION TO THE DELUGE.

No particular description of the creation of the heaven and the earth is given in the Bible. Nor, indeed, was any other account requisite, than to inform mankind that they *were* created by the immediate power of God. Suffice it, therefore, to observe that, at the sovereign command of the Almighty, the cheerful light of day appeared; the firmament expanded, to divide the upper from the lower waters; the congregated floods retired to their destined bed; the dry land was crowned with a rich profusion of herbage, fruits, and flowers; the waters were replenished with an abundant variety of fish; the odoriferous air was fanned by the pinions of innumerable birds; the verdant meads were stocked with cattle, and every part of the earth was inhabited by its appropriate tribes. To complete, and truly to excel the whole, God created *man* of the dust of the ground, and infused into his body the breath of life, or immortality, in consequence of which *man became a living soul*. The Almighty also formed woman out of the side of the man, whom he cast into a profound slumber for that purpose.

Having thus produced an exquisite and a beautiful system from a shapeless chaos, God placed the man and his wife, whom he named Adam and Eve, in the Garden of Eden, and gave them instructions to dress and

4004  
B.C.

to keep it. He allowed them the free use of the fruit with which the garden abounded, with the exception of a particular tree, which was called the tree of knowledge of good and evil, and of which if they presumed to eat, they would incur the penalty of inevitable death. Contrary, however, to the divine injunction, the woman, deceived by the subtlety of the serpent, ate of the forbidden fruit, and afterwards enticed her husband to participate in her crime. From that moment innocence forsook the human bosom. For this action, the Almighty cursed the serpent above all beasts; condemned the woman to be subject to her husband, and to bring forth children in sorrow; and doomed Adam to till the earth, and to procure from it his sustenance by daily and painful exertion. He then compelled them to quit the confines of Paradise, and placed at the entrance a cherubim, with a flaming sword that turned every way, to guard the passage to the tree of life.

Cain, the eldest son of Adam, is supposed to have been born in the first year of the world; and Abel, his brother, the year following. The former was gloomy and avaricious; the latter, virtuous and ingenuous. Cain undertook the labours of husbandry, and Abel preferred the care of the flocks. God having accepted the sacrifice of Abel and disregarded that of Cain, the latter, transported with rage and envy, killed his brother. On account of the perpetration of this horrid deed, the Almighty condemned Cain to become a fugitive and a vagabond on the earth; and set a mark on him—of what nature we know not—that men might know him thereby as a man placed under the ban of God's displeasure, and forbear to molest him, under pain of incurring a sevenfold punishment.

3875

B.C.

Soon after the tragical effect of Cain's resentment, his afflicted parents were consoled by the birth of Seth, whose descendants were for a long time distinguished by their piety and wisdom, and were honoured with the appellation of *the sons of God*. At length, however, they contracted alliances with the daughters of Cain, whose vices and profligacy of manners they gradually adopted. At last, the wickedness of mankind became so great, that the earth was literally filled with violence, and God determined to destroy the whole world.

3874

B.C.

But, notwithstanding the *general* corruption, one man was



found perfect in his generation, and walking humbly with his God. This was Noah, a descendant from Seth, who, with his three sons, Shem, Ham, and Japheth, and their wives, "found grace in the eyes of the Lord." The venerable patriarch received instructions from God to build an ark, or vessel, which might contain his own family and such a number of animals of every species, as might replenish the earth after the deluge. In the year of the world 1656, Noah and his family, with all kinds of birds, beasts, and reptiles, by pairs and by sevens, entered the ark; and God opened the windows of heaven, and poured the inundating torrents on the earth for forty days and forty nights without intermission. The waters increased gradually during a hundred and fifty days, and overwhelmed all mankind except those who were in the ark, and who, after being enclosed in this vessel during the space of a year and ten days, came forth in pursuance of the divine command.

2348  
B.C.

Impressed with the most lively gratitude to the author and preserver of his existence, Noah, immediately upon his landing, erected an altar upon Mount Ararat, where the ark rested, and offered a burnt sacrifice of every clean beast and of every clean fowl. This act of piety was highly pleasing to God, who graciously affirmed that he would no more curse the earth for man's sake; but that, on the contrary, it should retain all its privileges, and enjoy an uninterrupted succession of seasons, till the period of its final destruction. As a token of his inviolable decree, the Almighty promised to set his bow in the clouds when it rained, that the posterity of Adam might look on it and contemplate the effects of his sovereign mercy.

2347  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Creation of the World, as supposed...	B.C. 4004	The birth of the patriarch Noah .....	B.C. 2948
Abel killed by his brother Cain .....	„ 3875	Birth of Shem, Ham, and Japheth (about)...	„ 2448
Birth of Seth, Adam's third son .....	„ 3874	The world destroyed by the Flood .....	„ 2348
Death of the first man, Adam .....	„ 3074	Noah and his sons quit the Ark .....	„ 2347

## 2. THE DESCENDANTS OF NOAH—THE BUILDING OF BABEL AND DISPERSION OF THE NATIONS.

The Creator of the universe bestowed the choicest blessings on Noah, who descended from the mountain, applied himself to husbandry, and planted a vineyard. Having drunk too freely of the juice of the grape, he became intoxicated, and lay carelessly uncovered within his tent. In this situation he was discovered by Ham, the father of Canaan, who made him the subject of derision; but Shem and Japheth, being respectful and tender of the patriarch's honour, covered him with a garment.

In return for their filial conduct, Shem and Japheth were blessed by their father, who invoked a curse on his son Ham and his posterity. The blessing pronounced on Japheth, who was the eldest son of Noah, was in the following terms: "God shall enlarge Japheth, and he shall dwell in the tents of Shem, and Canaan shall be his servant." This prophecy was fully accomplished in the great possessions which fell to the posterity of Japheth in different parts of the world; in the overthrow of the Assyrian Empire by the Medes, in conjunction with the Babylonians; and, finally, in the subjugation of the Canaanites, the Babylonians, the Egyptians, and other descendants of Ham, by the children of his elder brother.

Before proceeding further, it may be as well to attempt to define, as far as possible, the regions of the earth which fell to the share of Shem, Ham, and Japheth. The descendants of Japheth occupied the northern coast of Asia Minor and Armenia, and then spread to the south-east, through the north-east of the country now called Persia, and away over Afghanistan and Beloochistan through Southern Asia; to the north across the Caucasus, and over the great central plains of Europe and Asia; and to the north-west over Greece and the Greek islands, and the whole of the peninsula between the Black Sea and the Adriatic. The children of Shem occupied the southern part of Asia Minor, the country now known as Syria and Mesopotamia, the greater part of Arabia, and the districts to the north-east of the Persian Gulf. The posterity of Ham occupied the northern coasts of Africa, Egypt, Ethiopia, the southern coast of Arabia, Palestine, and the isthmus and adjoining districts at the head of the Red Sea. The descend-

ants of Shem and Ham seem to have come frequently into collision on the borders of their respective territories, and the land that was at one time occupied by one race was at another time in the possession of the other. Thus Canaan, at first peopled by the children of Ham, ultimately came into the possession of the Israelites, who were descended from Shem.

"Blessed be the Lord God of Shem, and Canaan shall be his servant," was the blessing pronounced by Noah on Shem—a blessing indicating future benefits of a religious nature, and abundantly fulfilled in the fact that the children of Abraham, God's chosen nation, traced their descent from Shem, and that from Shem came ultimately the Saviour of the world. The Canaanites, too, became the servants of the Israelites when they conquered Canaan.

### 3. OF THE SONS OF SHEM.

Asshur was the founder of the Assyrian nation in the upper valleys of the Tigris. Elam, his eldest son, was the founder of the nation of the Elamites who occupied at first the country about the lower course of the Tigris and Euphrates, and the head of the Persian Gulf. They ultimately became a small tribe, famous for their skill in archery, and were pushed back from the table lands into the neighbouring mountainous districts. From Arphaxad came Eber, who settled in the ancient Chaldæa, and was the progenitor of the Hebrews or Israelites.

Noah pronounced a heavy curse against a branch of the posterity of Ham: "Cursed," says the patriarch, "be *Canaan*; a servant of servants shall he be unto his brethren." The humiliation of Canaan in becoming a servant of servants to his brethren, seems to have been especially accomplished in him, without extending to the rest of his brethren. With respect to Shem, the prophecy was fulfilled in the memorable victories of the Israelites, and in the subsequent achievements of the Assyrians and Persians; and with regard to Japheth, it was completed in the successive conquests of the Canaanites by the Greeks and Romans in the Holy Land and its borders, in which the remnants of the Canaanites even then lingered; and in the subjugation of the Carthaginians, unless, as it is stated by some authorities, the people of Carthage were really sprung

from a tribe descended from Shem, which migrated to Phœnicia about the time of Abraham, and settled there, after subduing the children of Ham who then held it.

The most distinguished of the descendants of Ham was Nimrod, "a mighty one in the earth, and a mighty hunter," and of whom the scripture farther says, that "the beginning of his kingdom was Babel, Erech, Accad, and Calneh, in the land of Shinar." From these words it appears that he was a person of uncommon strength and courage. He is supposed to have been the first man who assumed regal dignity after the flood; and that he aimed at constituting a universal sovereignty for himself.

It was Nimrod, it is supposed, who, inspired with the hope of reducing all the inhabitants of the world at that time into subjection, and becoming their sole ruler, adopted the resolution of erecting a city, and a tower or citadel of great size and strength, "whose top," in the expressive language of holy writ, which well illustrates the pride and purpose of the builders, "might reach to heaven," for the express purpose of avoiding the dispersion of their families, in due accordance with the intention of the Almighty, that by their dispersion the earth might be replenished with inhabitants in every direction.

Accordingly, they commenced their work with ardour, and used bricks instead of stone, and slime or bitumen in the room of mortar. When they had carried the edifice to a considerable height, they perceived that they no longer understood each other; and God, whose infinite wisdom had decreed the welfare of his creatures by the very circumstance which the builders attempted to elude, compelled them to relinquish their vain project, by confounding their language, and rendering them unintelligible to each other. The city now assumed the name of Babel, or *Confusion*, and the dispersion of mankind immediately ensued.

**2247** Prior to this important event, which happened a  
 hundred years after the Deluge, all mankind spoke  
 B.C. the same language, and lived together in one body.

It now, however, became indispensably necessary, that they should divide themselves according to their respective tongues and families, in order to people the earth. This dispersion and the subsequent planting of nations were performed in the *most regular manner*; and thus were formed those societies

or nations, which gradually overspread the surface of the earth.

With respect to the religious rites of the primeval race of men, we can only affirm, that they offered sacrifices of animals, as well as of the fruits of the earth. Some, indeed, have attempted to prove, that all the patriarchs, from Adam, had certain times and places set apart for the celebration of divine worship. Without doubt, the Sabbath was instituted immediately after the creation; and it is not likely that the observance of it was ever wholly discontinued.

With respect to their arts and sciences little can be said; for they appear to have devoted more of their time to luxury and dissipation, than to useful discoveries or mental improvement. Tubal Cain, a descendant of Cain, found out the art of working metals; and it seems probable, that music was invented about the same time, by Tubal, another of his posterity. By some it has been supposed, that the science of astronomy was cultivated by the antediluvians; but this opinion rests on no solid foundation.

It is possible, that the Hebrew tongue was that which God first gave to His creatures. At least, if the Hebrew cannot substantiate its claim, we may affirm that the primitive language was entirely lost at Babel. There is no doubt, that this memorable confusion was effected by the immediate agency of God, whom Moses solemnly describes as coming down to view the builders, and to accomplish his great design. It would, however, be difficult to determine what number of languages was then formed. All that we know with certainty is, that the Hebrew, Syriac, and Egyptian languages, were formed as early as the time of Jacob. It is probable, that the languages of the chief families were fundamentally different from each other, though the dialects within each branch had a mutual affinity. This variation seems well adapted to promote the designs of the Almighty, by dividing mankind into societies, commonwealths, and kingdoms.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Attempt of Nimrod to establish universal sovereignty over all mankind in his own person by building the Tower of Babel.....	B.C. 2248	Frustration of Nimrod's design by the confusion of tongues and consequent dispersion of the nations .....	B.C. 2247
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## CHAPTER II.

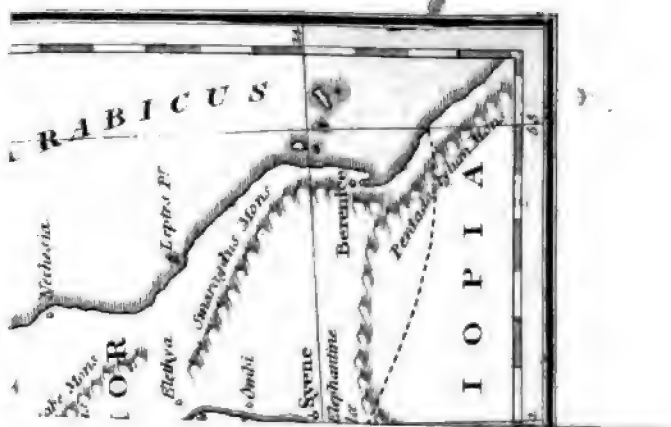
## EGYPT AND THE EGYPTIAN MONARCHIES.

## 1. FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE INVASION OF THE SHEPHERD KINGS.

About 2717 B.C. to about 2080 B.C.

THE country which is known to us as Egypt, and which was known to the ancient Greeks and Romans as *Ægyptus*, is supposed to have been settled by the descendants of Mizraim, the second son of Ham. In the Bible Egypt is called Mizraim, and this appellation has been brought down to the present time in the name El Misr, which is applied to it by its inhabitants and the Arabs generally. The name by which Egypt is denoted on the ancient monuments of the country is Khem, which is said to mean the same as the Hebrew word, Ham. On this account some suppose that Ham lived in Egypt, and gave his name to the country; but it is most probable that it was settled, as it has been said, by the descendants of Mizraim, and received in addition to his name the name of his father, as his children were in a wider significance the children of Ham, and it was natural that they should call their country after the name of him from whom their families were sprung, and who was in point of fact, the head of their race.

Egypt occupies the north-eastern corner of Africa, and is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean Sea, on the east by the desert of Shur and the Red Sea, on the south by Ethiopia, and on the west by the Great Libyan Desert. Its coast line along the Mediterranean Sea extended for rather more than 500 miles, from a point north-east of Rhinocorura and the mouth of the river *Ægyptus*, or "River of Egypt," to another to the west of Apis, or in after times to the district that the Romans called Marmarica. Its southern boundary was an irregular line a little to the south of the 24th parallel of north latitude, and taking a direction to the south-east after crossing the Nile at Philæ. Through the centre of this tract of country runs the Nile, which then, as now, overflowed its banks, periodically fertilising the country on either side of it with the soil that it brought in its turbid



ought that Herodotus was purposely deceived by the  
 priests in much that he relates. To show how little  
 reliance can be placed on the dates assigned to events in  
 early part of ancient history, it is only necessary to point  
 out that the era of Menes, the first king of Egypt, who is  
 named by the above historians, is fixed at 2717 B.C.,  
 three hundred years before the birth of Ham, accord-



~~THESE~~ ~~MINIMALLY~~ its southern boundary was an irregular line a little to the south of the 24th parallel of north latitude, and taking a direction to the south-east after crossing the Nile at Philæ. Through the centre of this tract of country runs the Nile, which then, as now, overflowed its banks, periodically fertilising the country *on either side* of it with the soil that it brought in its turbid

waters from the heart of the African continent. Ancient Egypt was originally divided into two parts by a line drawn from east to west from the head of the Sinus Heroopoliticus, the western inlet at the extremity of the Red Sea, across the Nile a little above Memphis, and then in a south-western direction to the confines of the Great Libyan Desert. The country north of this line, which was watered by the arms into which the Nile divides itself north of Memphis, and which inclose and traverse the tract called the Delta, was called *Ægyptus Inferior*, or Lower Egypt; while the country to the south of it was distinguished as *Ægyptus Superior*, or Higher Egypt. In after years, Upper Egypt was divided into two parts by a line from east to west, near the 28th parallel of north latitude: of these the northern part was called the Heptanomis, or district of the Seven Nomes or Provinces, while the southern part was called Thebais, or the Thebaid, from its chief town, Thebes. These divisions with Lower Egypt correspond very closely with the Upper, Middle, and Lower Egypt of the present day.

There is little that is very clear or certain in Egyptian history until the time of the Shepherd Kings, and even then there is much that is obscure and vague until we reach the time of Psammeticus (685 B.C.), one of the twelve kings who then reigned in Egypt over different parts of the country. This man asserted his superiority over the rest of the kings of the country, and united the whole of Egypt under his sway, much as Egbert subdued the Saxon kings of the Heptarchy, and rendered himself sole monarch of England; but there is much to be said before we reach this point, when the clouds of tradition are wholly dispelled by the brighter sunlight of reliable narrations.

The earliest accounts of Egypt are to be found in the writings of the Greek historians, Herodotus and Diodorus, and the Egyptian historian, Manetho. The narratives of the Greek writers differ essentially from that of Manetho, and it is thought that Herodotus was purposely deceived by the Greek priests in much that he relates. To show how little dependance can be placed on the dates assigned to events in the early part of ancient history, it is only necessary to point out that the era of Menes, the first king of Egypt, who is mentioned by the above historians, is fixed at 2717 B.C., nearly three hundred years before the birth of Ham, accord-

ing to the accounts given in the Bible, by whose descendants Egypt was settled. The discrepancy, however, will not tend to throw the slightest discredit on the latter when we remember how prone all nations are—especially eastern nations, the Chinese for example—to assume dates for the commencement of their national history that would carry us back to periods far anterior to the starting point in the world's history, to which we are directed by Holy Writ, and which is generally received by chronologists.

By Manetho it is asserted that twenty-five dynasties of Egyptian kings reigned in the country prior to the accession of Psammeticus, who has been already mentioned. Some of these dynasties were contemporary, that is to say, the kings of one dynasty were ruling over one part of Egypt while those of another were ruling at the same time over another part. To add to the difficulty and confusion that these dynasties occasion is the want of their regular succession. Thus before the second dynasty had come to a close, the fourth, sixth, ninth, and eleventh had begun in other parts of the country. This will be understood by referring once more to the Saxon Heptarchy, when seven dynasties or lines of kings were in power at the same time in different parts of England. But the dynasties of Egyptian kings are even more complicated than this, for in some instances the father is made the last of one dynasty while the son is constituted the first of the dynasty that immediately succeeds it, without any good or particular reason for the arbitrary separation. Neglecting any close consideration of the dynasties, it will help us to remember that as it was in England in the time of the Heptarchy, so it was in Egypt in early times subsequent to the settlement of the country; and that although the land was divided into two great kingdoms, Upper and Lower Egypt, yet it is certain that petty kingdoms existed in different parts, the capitals of which were This (now Abydos), Memphis (now Cairo), Elephantine, Heracleopolis, and Thebes in Upper Egypt, and Xoïs in Lower Egypt.

Following Mr. Edward Lane's arrangement of the dynasties of the early kings of Egypt, it appears that the first of these of whom we have any record was the Thinite line, whose power was established at This, 2717 B.C. (?), in the person of Menes, and that about 2650 B.C. (?), the Memphite line of monarchs was established at Memphis. The last kings of

these lines were driven out simultaneously about 2080 B.C., by the Shepherd Kings as they are called ; but before this happened, other petty kingdoms had been erected at Elephantine about 2440 B.C., at Heracleopolis about 2200 B.C., and at Diospolis or Thebes about the same time. The Diospolite kings seem to have maintained themselves with more or less success against the Shepherd Kings throughout the time of their supremacy in Egypt, and to have made head against them, and driven them out of the country about 1525 B.C. It has been pointed out that the dates assigned to the first of the Thinite and Memphite kings are prior to that at which Egypt is conceived to have been settled according to the chronology of the Bible, and the assertion of the power of the kings of Diospolis over the Shepherd Kings probably took place at a later period.

All historians agree in naming Menes as the first king who ruled in Egypt. His capital was This (now Abydos). In his time Lower Egypt is said to have been nothing better than a huge marsh, which is incredible. He is credited with having altered the course of the Nile, which was previously more to the westward, at the foot of the Libyan hills, and with having founded Memphis. It is possible that he founded this city and placed there as viceroy one of his sons, or a noble of his court, who became the progenitor of the Memphite kings, a new line that soon became independent of the parent kingdom. The power of his successors, although they retained their kingdom until the invasion of the Shepherd Kings, seems to have paled beneath the superior might, wealth and influence of the kings of Memphis.

To some of the Memphite monarchs is ascribed the building of the Pyramids of Gizeh, huge pointed structures of stone, having four sides, in the shape of an equilateral triangle, and rising from a square base, that are still standing in the plain that lies about four or five miles from Cairo, to the north-west of the Egyptian capital. One of these Memphite kings, Shura by name, who lived about 2440 B.C. (?) according to Mr. Lane, is shown on some of the ancient monuments in conflict with men dressed in the flowing robes of Asiatics. It is possible that he may be identical with the king called Osymandyas by Herodotus, who is said to have carried his arms into Asia and conquered the Bactrians. Among his successors, about 2352 B.C. (?), were two brothers, Stuphis and

Sensuphis, who reigned conjointly, and built, the former the Great Pyramid, and the latter the next in size, known as the Second Pyramid. It is, however, considered by good authorities, that these brothers who shared the throne were joint builders of the Great Pyramid, and that the Second Pyramid was built by Shafra, one of the Elephantine kings, who were kinsmen of the kings of Memphis, and buried their dead in the common burial place of their race. Suphis and Sensuphis are supposed to be the Cheops and Cepirenes of Herodotus, or according to what has been just stated, the Elephantine monarchs. Shafra may be the Cephrenes of Herodotus. The reign of Osymandyas is placed by the chronologists, Usher and Lenglet, about 2100 B.C., and that of Suphis or Cheops, by some at a period anterior to this, and by others as late as 1082 B.C. However, as it has been explained, nothing can be said with certainty of the events ascribed to this era, and the dates at which they are supposed to have occurred. The third and smallest of these Pyramids was built by Mencheres, called Mycerinus, by Herodotus. Part of the case in which his mummy was enclosed, was found in this pyramid, and is now to be seen in the British Museum.

The last of the Memphite monarchs was a queen named Nitocris, who is said to have been an Ethiopian, but was probably of Ethiopian extraction by the mother's side. Her brother had been murdered by some of the Memphite nobles, who subsequently raised her to the throne. Extremely beautiful in face, and of a most graceful figure, this woman was cruel and vindictive in disposition. She showed no gratitude to her brother's murderers for placing the sceptre in her grasp, but avenged his death in the most savage manner. At the invasion of the Shepherd Kings she lost her throne and kingdom, and possibly her life.

No further mention need be made of the kings of Elephantine and Heracleopolis, the kingdoms of both came to an end in the time of the Shepherd Kings, and no king of any celebrity sat on the throne of either kingdom, unless, as it has been conjectured, it was Shafra of Elephantine, who built the Second Pyramid at Memphis, and was the Cephrenes of Herodotus. It will be clearly seen by the student that the early history of Egypt is based almost entirely on conjecture, and although the dates that are given are probably not far from correct, it must be borne in mind that they are approximate only and not absolute.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Reign of Menes and establishment of Thinite kings at This (?) B.C. 2717	Colonization of Egypt by Mizraim, and his descendants, probably .....	B.C. 2200
Establishment of the Memphite Kings at Memphis ..... (?) ,, 2650	Memphis built by Mizraim (according to Blair).....	„ 2188
Establishment of the Elephantine Kings at Elephantine ..... (?) ,, 2440	Egypt divided into kingdoms of This and Memphis (Blair) .....	„ 2126
Reign of Shura (probably the Osymandyas of Herodotus) ..... (?) ,, 2440	Thebes said to be built by Busiris (according to Usher) .....	„ 2111
Joint reign of Suphis and Sensuphis (Cheops and Cephrenes) .... (?) ,, 2352	Alleged conquest of Bactria by Osymandyas .....	„ 2100
Accession of Menes according to Wilkinson) ,, 2320	Subversion of the Thinite and Memphite monarchs, and end of the reign of the Memphite Queen Nitocris, by the invasion of the Shepherd Kings .....	„ 2080
Establishment of the Diospolite kings at Thebes ..... (?) ,, 2200		

## 2. FROM THE INVASION OF THE SHEPHERD KINGS TO THE DODECARCHY.

2080 B.C. to 685 B.C.

We are naturally led to inquire who were the Shepherd Kings who invaded Egypt, and drove from the throne the two most powerful of the five lines of native princes who were reigning in different parts of Egypt at the time? Manetho says that they were Phœnicians and Arabians, so it is most probable that the invaders were tribes descended from Shem, who had been driven westward from their previous settlements by the advance of an enemy, most likely the Assyrians; or who had marched westward, lured thither by the lust of conquest. In common with other tribes and nations of the east their attention had been turned chiefly to feeding and rearing cattle, and hence, perhaps, the kings that ruled Egypt after the conquest obtained the name of Shepherd Kings among the Egyptians.

Whether the conquest of the country was easily achieved or not, it is impossible to determine. The sudden and simultaneous close of the lines of kings that had been ruling for

many centuries at This and Memphis, seems to indicate that Lower Egypt and a great part of Upper Egypt fell into the hands of the new comers after a short, sharp, and decisive struggle, for it is scarcely to be supposed that the native princes yielded without an attempt to defend their thrones and capitals against the invaders. That the power of the kings of This and Memphis was on the decline is indicated by the establishment of petty kingdoms at Heracleopolis, close to Memphis and Thebes, about sixty years before the invasion. As soon as the first of the Shepherd Kings, who was called Saïtes or Salatis, had established himself at Memphis by force, and overrun the greater part of Upper Egypt, he permitted the kings of Heracleopolis and Thebes to retain their dominions on payment of tribute, and even allowed the formation of a new petty kingdom under native princes at Xoïs in Lower Egypt.

It was during the reign of one of the Shepherd Kings that Abraham visited Egypt, and it is a matter of certainty that the events recorded in Genesis from this period to Joseph's death, took place while the Shepherd Kings held Egypt in subjugation. The date of Abraham's sojourn in Egypt is fixed at 1920 B.C. by the chronology of the Bible, while Joseph was sold into slavery there in 1729 B.C., and became the prime minister of the ruling monarch about fourteen years after. In 1706 B.C., the children of Israel settled in Goshen. It will be remembered that when Jacob and his family came into Egypt, Joseph laid strict injunctions on his brethren to say that they had been accustomed to tending cattle from childhood. It may be that this was done with the view of causing them to be regarded all the more favourably by the King of Egypt, whose ancestors had followed the same business. At all events it procured the Israelites a settlement in the rich and fertile land of Goshen, which was in the eastern part of Lower Egypt, and possibly prevented the king from sending them further southward among the Egyptians, as he would be better able to protect them in that locality, which also afforded good grazing land for their flocks. And it is significantly added, "for every shepherd is an abomination to the Egyptians," and naturally so, for their oppressors were a nomad people who had come from the east.

The Shepherd Kings held Egypt in subjection about 500 years, which fixes the time of their expulsion about 1580, or



the time, at all events, at which the native princes began to get the better of the kings of foreign extraction that had held the land so long in thralldom. The Diospolite king who commenced the work of liberation was Amosis, a warlike monarch, who, in addition to achieving the freedom of his country, conquered Ethiopia, and rendered it tributary to Egypt. The expelled princes sailed northwards and settled in Greece; for it is just at this period that Cecrops, an Egyptian, is said to have come to Attica, and Cadmus, a Phœnician, founded Thebes in Bœotia.

Amosis settled himself at Memphis, transferring thither the seat of power which for him had previously been at Thebes. Joseph had died in 1635 B.C., and it is possible that this Diospolite king was the "king that knew not Joseph," for the memory of the wise minister would be cherished by the successors of the master whom he served so well. By his direction, probably, the Israelites—who had increased so much in number that the conqueror thought it good policy to enslave them, lest they should rise in arms on behalf of their old protectors—were reduced to bondage. It must have been in the time of this monarch, or his immediate successor, that Moses was born (1571 B.C.), and in his court that he was brought up. In 1531 B.C., the future Jewish law-giver quitted Egypt, to return to it, after an absence of forty years, in 1491 B.C., at God's express command, to bring his chosen people out of bondage, and lead them to the promised land. It is impossible to identify the king who corresponds with the Pharaoh of Exodus, in whose reign the Israelites quitted Egypt. No record has yet been found of this event on the monuments of the country, or in the Egyptian tombs, and the difficulty is increased by the impossibility of reconciling the dates of events and settling the identity of the kings whose exploits are related by Herodotus and Diodorus with those named by Manetho, or who are mentioned in the monumental records of Egypt.

Thus the Greek writers speak of Moeris as the king who dug the lake of that name in the nome or province of Arsene, and assign 1355 B.C. as the time at which he was reigning. By Manetho, however, Amenemha III., a Diospolite king, is said to have made Lake Moeris, and to have built the labyrinth not far from it, which is ascribed by Herodotus to Psammetichus and his colleagues of the Dode-

carchy. This king lived about 1950 B.C. It is difficult, however, to understand how he was permitted to execute these great works so close to Memphis, then the capital of the Shepherd Kings, and so far from his own chief city, Thebes.

The Sesostris of the Greeks, who is said to have conquered the greater part of Africa, and to have carried his arms to the Ganges and the Danube, and who reigned (according to Lenglet) about 1618 B.C., is supposed to be either Sesertesen III., a Diospolite king who reigned about 2000 B.C., or Sethos or Rameses II., of later times. There was, however, no Egyptian king who extended his conquests so far as Sesostris is said to have done by the Greek historians. The attention of the reader is directed to these things to show how little reliance is to be placed on the statements of the old Greek writers about Egypt and the Egyptian kings, and it will be better now to confine ourselves to facts related by Manetho or deduced from the monumental records of the country.

Amosis, the conqueror of the Shepherd Kings, rendered Ethiopia tributary to Egypt, and his immediate successors extended their authority over Mesopotamia and the intervening countries to the south of Canaan. The king who bore the title of Amenoph III.—one of the later kings of the dynasty founded by Amosis—is supposed to be the Memnon of the Greeks. Colossal statues to his memory are still standing at Thebes. Before this king, came two of the same name, and four that bore the name of Thothmes. Thothmes III. is said to have been the king who acquired authority over Arabia and Mesopotamia, as far as the head of the Persian Gulf; and the last of the Shepherd Kings, whose power was probably abridged rather than extinguished entirely by Amosis, quitted Egypt, according to Manetho, in the reign of Thothmes IV. Amenoph III. was succeeded by his son Horus, after whom came Rameses I. This king's reign is supposed to have terminated about 1340 B.C., but probably came to an end at an earlier date.

Rameses I. was succeeded, after a short reign, by his son Sethos, celebrated for the "Hall of Columns," which he built in the temple of Karnac. He maintained the conquests made in Asia by his ancestors, and conquered the Hittites of *the valley* of the Orontes. His son and successor, Rameses

II., surnamed the Great, is supposed to be the Sesostris of the Greeks. Although there is no evidence to show that he carried his arms as far as is attributed to Sesostris by Herodotus, it is clear that he was engaged in frequent wars, and compelled the captives that he took in battle to execute many great public works, such as the canals which intersected the country. He was the first who attempted to make a canal between the Mediterranean Sea and the Red Sea. He is supposed to have reigned about 1266 B.C.

A time of trouble and internal confusion marked the time that intervened between Rameses II. and Rameses III., during which several kings sat on the throne. It is supposed that Rameses III. is identical with the Rhampsinitus of Herodotus, and that one of his immediate predecessors was the Proteus of the Greeks, whose diplomatic skill gave rise to the Greek legend of his being able to change his shape at pleasure. Proteus probably was Sethos II., the grandson or great-grandson of Rameses II., and the grandfather of Rameses III. The age of Rameses III., who reigned about 1200 B.C., was notable for victories and successes abroad, including a victory by sea over the Cretans and Carians. He also built some magnificent temples and a superb tomb near Thebes. After him the power of the Theban kingdom declined, and was subverted in point of fact by the Tanite kings, who had founded a new kingdom at Tanis, in Lower Egypt, about 1085 B.C.

We now arrive at a period when the Egyptians came into contact again with the people who had once been their slaves. Another kingdom had been established at Bubastis, in Lower Egypt, about 1009 B.C., and its kings are supposed to have been of Assyrian or Babylonian origin. The first of the line was Shishak. This king married a daughter of one of the Tanite kings, who had now extended their power over Thebes. He was contemporary with Solomon and Rehoboam, kings of Judah, and received Jeroboam when he fled into Egypt in the reign of the former king. Subsequently he made war on Rehoboam, and having taken Jerusalem, plundered the temple. We have now, as it may be seen, reached a point at which for the first time the Egyptian chronology is no longer doubtful, for the exact period at which Shishak invaded Judea can be determined from the chronology of the Bible. Manetho says that

971  
B.C.

he reigned twenty-one years, but if the date of the first formation of the Bubastic kingdom be correctly given, Shishak must have reigned for a much longer period if he was the first of its kings, and conquered Judea in 971 B.C. The Jews were compelled to pay an annual tribute to Shishak and his successors for some time before the yoke of Egypt was shaken off.

From the time of Shishak, the power of the Egyptians in Judea and Western Asia seems to have declined before the growing might of the Assyrians and Babylonians. In 781 B.C. a king named Bocchoris, and surnamed the Wise, on account of his prudent legislation, established himself at Saïs, in Lower Egypt. His reign was brought to a termination by an invasion of the Ethiopians, who were led by Sabaco, or Shebek I. This event happened in 737 B.C. The unfortunate Bocchoris is said to have been roasted alive by his conqueror. The successors of Shebek I. were Shebek II., supposed to be the king So who entered into alliance with Hoshea, king of Israel, about 722 B.C.; and Tirhakah, who marched to the relief of Jerusalem at the bidding of Hezekiah, when the city was beleaguered by Sennacherib and the Assyrians. It was when on his way to meet Tirhakah on the confines of Egypt that Sennacherib's army was miraculously destroyed (711 B.C.). The reign of Tirhakah came to an end about 704 B.C.

It is supposed that the invasion of Assyria by Tirhakah, which must naturally have followed the overthrow of Sennacherib's army and his rapid flight into his own land, was repelled by Esarhaddon, his son, who turned the tide of invasion and carried it once more towards the confines of Egypt. He was successful, it appears, in subduing the country, and divided it into twenty provinces, each of which he placed under an Egyptian prince. This happened about 680 B.C. The conquest of Egypt by Esarhaddon, and the assignment of the provinces to native governors, seems to have given rise to the story of the Dodecarchy, or government of the twelve kings, related by Herodotus. These princes, he says, divided Egypt between them after the retirement of the Ethiopians, and entered into a league by which they agreed to afford mutual support to each other in case of foreign invasion. Among them was Psammetichus, who was subsequently driven from his province by his colleagues and allies.

To revenge himself on them for the wrong they had done him, he called the Greeks of Asia Minor to his assistance, and by their aid succeeded in making himself master of the whole of Egypt. The conquest of Egypt by Psammetichus, who was the son of Necho, or Nechao, one of the Saïte kings who had been deposed by the Ethiopian Sabaco, happened in 665 B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Egypt by the Shepherd Kings	B.C. 2080	Invasion of Judea by Shishak, and capture of Jerusalem	B.C. 971
The patriarch Abraham visits Egypt	„ 1920	Invasion of Egypt by the Ethiopians under Sabaco, or Shebek I.	„ 737
Joseph, the son of the patriarch Jacob, becomes Prime minister of Egypt	„ 1715	Alliance of So, or Shebek II., with Hoshea, King of Israel	„ 722
Settlement of the children of Israel in Goshen	„ 1706	Tirhakah marches to the assistance of Hezekiah. Miraculous overthrow of the Assyrian army under Sennacherib	„ 711
Expulsion of the most powerful of the Shepherd Kings by Amosis, about	„ 1580	Invasion of Egypt by Esarhaddon, and division of Egypt into provinces under native princes	„ 680
Exodus of the children of Israel	„ 1491	The Confederacy of Princes, or "Dodecarchy," as the Greeks called it, overthrown by Psammetichus I., who becomes sole King of Egypt	„ 664
Ramesses II., the Great (perhaps the Sesostris of the Greeks), reigned about	„ 1266		
Ramesses III., the last of the powerful kings of Thebes, reigned about	„ 1200		
Kingdom established at Bubastis by Shishak	„ 1009		

## 3. PSAMMETICHUS AND HIS SUCCESSORS.—THE PERSIANS IN EGYPT.

665 B.C. TO 332 B.C.

The reign of Psammetichus was a long and brilliant one. He took Ashdod, or Azotus, after a siege, said to have lasted for twenty-nine years, and took measures, by providing himself with a large number of Greek mercenaries, to secure the country against foreign invasion and internal dissensions.

The establishment of an army of foreigners on the soil led to a considerable migration of Egyptian soldiers into Ethiopia, which he tried in vain to prevent. He encouraged commerce with Greece and other foreign countries, and executed many great public works. Art as well as commerce was encouraged in Egypt under his fostering care, and the country generally exhibited a revival of the prosperity that had distinguished the reigns of the most able of the Theban kings. He seems to have possessed considerable diplomatic power, for towards the close of his reign he persuaded the Scythians, who had entered Western Asia, and were advancing through the Holy Land, to retire without entering Egypt.

On the death of Psammetichus in 611 B.C., after a long reign of fifty-four years, the sceptre devolved on his son Necho, called Pharaoh-Necho in the Bible. This prince endeavoured to carry out the attempt of Rameses II. to unite the Red Sea with the Nile by a canal. It is recorded that the circumnavigation of Africa was achieved in his reign, as one of his fleets, having sailed out of the Red Sea by the Strait of Bab-el-Mandeb, proceeded along the eastern coasts of Africa, doubled the Cape of Good Hope, and, passing the Straits of Gibraltar, returned to Egypt by the way of the Mediterranean. After encountering the Jews at Megiddo, when their King Josiah was slain, he advanced to the Euphrates and took Carchemish, which he garrisoned for the purpose of securing his frontier against the Assyrians. On his return he made Jehoiakim king of Judah, in the room of his brother Jehoahaz, and caused him to pay a heavy tribute to Egypt. Towards the close of his reign he lost all his Asiatic dominions, for Nebuchadnezzar—who had taken and killed his tributary ally, Jehoiakim, to whom Necho was unable to bear assistance—recovered the whole of the territory that Egypt had so long owned between the Euphrates and the river Egyptus.

He was succeeded in 595 B.C. by his son Psammetichus II., called Psammis by Herodotus. This king was consulted by the Greeks concerning the regulations of the Olympic games, and made an expedition into Ethiopia. He died in 589 B.C.

His son and successor, called Apries by Herodotus, and Pharaoh-Hophra in Holy Writ, was a warlike prince, who resumed the war against the Babylonians, and also employed *his forces* against the Tyrians, Sidonians, and Cypriots. The

defeat of an army of Egyptians, which he had sent against the Greek colony of Cyrene, on the north coast of Africa, caused considerable discontent throughout the country, and the native troops mutinied. They placed at their head Amasis, one of his generals, with the title of king. In the conflict that ensued Apries was vanquished, and fell into the hands of the usurper, who ordered him to be strangled. It is supposed by some that Nebuchadnezzar, after taking Jerusalem, conquered Egypt, and set up Amasis as his vassal, in the place of Apries, who fell in battle with the invader. Apries fell in 570 B.C.

Amasis reigned from 570 B.C. to 525 B.C. Under his government the country was happy and prosperous. He built the great temple of Isis at Memphis, and gave the utmost encouragement to art and commerce. He conquered Cyprus, and rendered it tributary to Egypt. He had a strong partiality for the Greeks, to whom he granted many important privileges. Having by some means exasperated Cambyses, the Persian, Amasis was threatened with an invasion by that prince. Previously, however, to the commencement of the impending storm Amasis died, and left a distracted kingdom to his son Psammenitus.

Scarcely had Psammenitus assumed the ensigns of royalty, when Cambyses appeared on the frontiers of the kingdom with a powerful army, and soon made himself master of Pelusium. A severe engagement afterwards took place, in which the Egyptians were defeated with great loss. Those who escaped the slaughter fled to Memphis, where they were besieged and compelled to surrender to the Persians, who put a great number of the Egyptian nobility to death, and took Psammenitus captive. Cambyses gave him his liberty; but Psammenitus thirsted for revenge on his conqueror, and entered into a conspiracy against his life. Being detected, he was condemned to death, and expired after a dismal reign of six months, and a short captivity. Cambyses pillaged and laid waste all Egypt, and caused the body of Amasis to be exposed to a thousand indignities, and finally to be consumed to ashes. He also burnt the Theban temples; and sent an army of 50,000 men across the desert to plunder and destroy the temples of Jupiter Ammon; but all these perished to a man in a terrible sand storm (524 B.C.). After this he killed a calf, which the

525

B.C.

Egyptians alleged to be the god Apis, with his own hand, and ordered the priests to be scourged. These severities made a strong and dreadful impression on the minds of the wretched Egyptians, who afterwards regarded the Persians with the most irreconcilable hatred.

Cambyzes was succeeded in 521 B.C. by Darius Hystaspes. The Egyptians broke into revolt towards the close of his reign (486 B.C.), but the rising was put down two years after, when Xerxes was on the throne of Persia. In the reign of Artaxerxes I., called Longimanus, the Egyptians again revolted under Inarus. This prince maintained himself for some time against the Persians; but, though greatly assisted by the Athenians, he was at length defeated, taken prisoner, and crucified. This terrible example, however, failed in producing the desired effect. Amyrtæus obtained the independence of his country in the time of Darius Nothus (414 B.C.), and reigned for six years at Saïs. After Amyrtæus four native princes wore the crown of Egypt; but their authority, notwithstanding the assistance of the Greeks, was always precarious. The first of these was Achoris (408-387 B.C.), and the second Nectanebo I. (387-369 B.C.). Both of these kings successfully repelled attacks of the Persians by the aid of Greek mercenaries. The third, Tachos (369-361 B.C.), arranged for the invasion of Persia, in concert with the Spartans and Athenians. He offended Agesilaus, King of Sparta, by assuming the supreme command of the expedition, and the Greek monarch withdrew his contingent. Scarcely had he quitted Egypt when the Egyptians, groaning under the taxes he had imposed on them to raise and equip his army and subsidise his allies, rose in insurrection, and placed his son Nectanebo, on the throne. When the news reached Tachos, he abandoned his army, and fled for refuge to Artaxerxes Mnemon.

Nectanebo II., who now assumed the regal dignity, established himself on the throne by the aid of Agesilaus, and for some time managed to maintain himself against the attacks of the Persians. Artaxerxes Ochus, however, marched against Egypt at the head of a large army, and with the aid of a considerable body of Greek mercenaries took Pelusium and other strongholds. Nectanebo, considering that all further resistance was hopeless, collected all his treasures and fled into Ethiopia, from whence he never attempted to return.



Thus was fulfilled the prophecy of Ezekiel, "There shall be no more a prince of the land of Egypt." 353  
 From this period Egypt was a province of Persia, B.C.  
 till that monarchy was subverted by Alexander the Great,  
 whom the Egyptians joyfully received as their deliverer from  
 the Persian yoke (332 B.C.).

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Psammetichus .....	B.C. 665	Invasion of Egypt by Cambyses .....	B.C. 525
Capture of Ashdod by Psammetichus, after a siege of 29 years .....	" 630	Egypt recovers her independence under Amyrtæus .....	" 414
Necho attempts to finish the canal across the Isthmus of Suez, begun by Rameses II. ....	" 610	Flight of Nectanebo II., and re-establishment of Persian authority in Egypt .....	" 353
Apries, or Pharaoh-Hophra, defeated by Nebuchadnezzar, as supposed .....	" 570	Overthrow of Persia, and acquirement of Egypt by Alexander the Great .....	" 332

## 4. EGYPT UNDER ALEXANDER THE GREAT.—THE FIRST FOUR PTOLEMIES.

332 B.C. to 205 B.C.

From the time of the occupation of Egypt by Alexander the Great in 332 B.C. until the death of the Grecian conqueror in 323 B.C., the country formed a dependency of the Macedonian empire. Alexander's first act, after liberating the people from the thralldom of Persia, was to found the city of Alexandria, on a neck of land situated between Lake Mareotis and the sea, intending to make it the centre of the Mediterranean trade with Africa and the east. Early in 331 B.C., he quitted Memphis on his way to Persia, never to return to Egypt alive, although his body was brought from Babylon to rest in a mausoleum at Alexandria, which afterwards became the tomb of her new kings. This city rapidly increased in size and magnificence: it was destined to become the capital of Egypt, under a new line of princes of Grecian extraction.

In the division of Alexander's territories among his generals, who at first received their provinces as governors only, to hold them in behalf of Philip III. Aridæus, Alexander's nominal successor in the empire, Egypt was assigned to Ptolemy.

This able general was supposed to be a son of Philip II. of Macedon, but before his birth, his mother married Lagus, a Macedonian, from whom the Greek kings of Egypt are called the Lagidæ. Quarrels broke out among the recipients of the provinces soon after the partition, and bloody wars ensued before a settlement was effected. An unsuccessful attempt to invade Egypt was made by Perdiccas in 321 B.C., and in the following year Ptolemy took Jerusalem and annexed the whole of Judæa, Samaria, and Phœnicia to his dominions, and he was confirmed in the possession of the Holy Land and Cœle-Syria by a treaty concluded in 312 B.C. Ptolemy added Cyrene on the northern coast of Africa to his dominions. He also took Cyprus in 308 B.C., but lost it two years afterwards, his fleet being totally defeated off the island by Demetrius Poliorcetes, the son of Antigonus. He was named Soter or Saviour by the Rhodians for the assistance that he rendered to them against Antigonus and his son before and during the siege of Rhodes (305 B.C.). It was about this time that Ptolemy assumed the title of king of Egypt and the ensigns and emblems of royalty. The battle of Ipsus (301 B.C.), in which Antigonus was defeated and killed by the allied troops of Ptolemy of Egypt, Seleucus of Babylon, and afterwards of Syria, and Lysimachus and Cassander of Thrace and Macedonia respectively, established Ptolemy in the peaceable possession of his kingdom and the adjacent provinces.

Ptolemy was a humane and tolerant monarch, ever ready to respect the religious views of others. A great number of Jews were induced to settle in Egypt during his reign, and contributed greatly to the growing prosperity of Alexandria. He also encouraged the arts and sciences, for it was he who built the famous lighthouse on the isle of Pharos, at the entrance to the harbour of Alexandria, and founded the famous library in that city, which was increased by his successors to 400,000, or according to some writers 700,000 volumes.

In 285 B.C., about two years before his death, Ptolemy Soter associated with himself in the government of Egypt his youngest son Ptolemy, surnamed Philadelphus, the son of his wife Berenice, to the exclusion of his elder sons by his wife Eurydice, the daughter of Antipater. The aged monarch died at the age of eighty-four, leaving behind him an illustrious example of prudence, justice, and clemency, which few of his successors attempted to imitate.

283  
B.C.

His son and successor, Ptolemy II., was surnamed Philadelphus, or "the Brother-loving," in irony, because he caused two of his brothers to be put to death at the commencement of his reign for exciting insurrection in different parts of his dominions. His foresight gave him a correct anticipation of the future grandeur of the Romans, to whom he sent ambassadors, and from whom he received others in return. Like his father he encouraged the culture of the arts and sciences, and protected those by whom they were cultivated : he made diligent search for books with which to enrich his library, and for paintings and drawings, of which he was a great admirer. He was powerful by land and sea, and carried on an extensive commerce through the Red Sea with Arabia, India, and the east coast of Africa as far as Madagascar ; and with all the countries on the sea-board of the Mediterranean. No notable wars were carried on by him, but a remarkable work was done in his reign at Alexandria—the translation of the Bible into Greek by seventy-two Jewish elders, which, from the number of translators engaged on it, is known to this day as the "Septuagint." He died 247 B.C.

Ptolemy II. was succeeded by his eldest son, Ptolemy III., surnamed Euergetes, or "the Benefactor." This prince no sooner obtained the crown than he commenced a successful war against Syria, to avenge the death of his sister Berenice, who had married Antiochus Theos, king of Syria, and had been poisoned by his second wife Laodice, to marry whom he had divorced Berenice. On his return from this expedition, he brought back many idols and statues, and vessels of gold and silver that Cambyzes had formerly carried from Egypt. It was for this that he received the name of Euergetes from the Egyptian priests. He seems to have been successful as a general, and might have completely subverted the empire of the Seleucidæ, or the Syrian monarchs, had he not been compelled to return and abandon the expedition to quell some internal disturbances at home. Subsequent to the conclusion of peace, this prince devoted the greatest part of his time to the cultivation of the sciences, and to the improvement of the Alexandrian library. He died in 222 B.C., having been poisoned, it is supposed, by his son and successor, Ptolemy IV., who in ironical allusion to the crime of parricide, of which he was suspected, was called Philopater, or "Father-loving."

Ptolemy IV. is said to have been a cruel and dissolute

prince, and of the cruelty of his disposition there is unfortunately no room for doubt. At the instigation of his prime minister Sosibius, he caused his brother Magas to be put to death; and this act of barbarity was followed by the murder of his uncle Lysimachus, his mother Berenice, and his sister Arsione, who was also his wife. Cleomenes, king of Sparta, to whom Euergetes had given an asylum in Egypt, opposing the murder of Magas, incurred the suspicion of the king and was thrown into prison. Having effected his escape, he and his followers endeavoured to excite the people to revolt, for which they were put to death.

In 219 B.C. the province of Cœle-Syria, which belonged to Egypt, was attacked and occupied by Antiochus the Great. Ptolemy IV., who appears to have been an able general, marched against him to recover the lost province, and totally defeated him in a great battle fought at Raphia, near Gaza, 217 B.C., after which Palestine and Cœle-Syria were once more acknowledged to be dependencies of Egypt.

On his return from this expedition, the Egyptian king visited Jerusalem, and urged by curiosity, attempted to force his way into the Most Holy Place, in disregard of the remonstrances of the high priest. Just as he was about to enter he was seized with a sudden fit of terror, and fell trembling to the earth. In revenge for his humiliation and the fancied insult, he commenced a persecution of the Alexandrine Jews as soon as he re-entered Alexandria, and sentenced a great many of them to be trodden to death by elephants. When the huge beasts were let loose on the trembling prisoners, they turned the whole of their rage on the spectators, soldiers, and assistants, of whom they destroyed a great number. This, together with some singular appearances in the air, so terrified Philopater, that he liberated the Jews, and publicly acknowledged the power of their God.

Towards the close of his reign the Romans renewed the treaty of alliance which had been formerly concluded with Egypt. Ptolemy IV. died in 205 B.C. Although his cruelty rendered him an object of dread to his friends and people, and his intemperance was so great that it shortened his life, he is said to have encouraged learning, and the culture of the arts and sciences, and to have built a magnificent temple in honour of the Greek poet Homer, whose statue was placed in *the centre of the edifice*.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Egypt occupied and annexed to Macedonian empire by Alexander the Great, and foundation of the city of Alexandria .....	B.C. 332	Ambassadors sent from Alexandria, and treaty concluded with Rome	B.C. 269
Death of Alexander, and assignment of Egypt to Ptolemy .....	„ 323	Accession of Ptolemy III. Euergetes .....	„ 247
Establishment of Egyptian monarchy under Ptolemy I. Soter .....	„ 305	Successful invasion of Syria by Ptolemy III. Euergetes .....	„ 246
Accession of Ptolemy II. Philadelphus .....	„ 283	Accession of Ptolemy IV. Philopater .....	„ 222
		Antiochus of Syria defeated at Raphia by Ptolemy IV. ....	„ 217
		Death of Ptolemy IV....	„ 205

## 5. THE RISE AND PROGRESS OF ROMAN ASCENDANCY IN EGYPT.

205 B.C. to 30 B.C.

At the death of Ptolemy IV., his son, Ptolemy V., surnamed Epiphanes, or “the Illustrious,” was only five years old, and Antiochus the Great of Syria, and Philip of Macedonia, entered into a league to attack Egypt and her dependencies, and to deprive the child-king of his dominions. The guardians of Ptolemy V., in consequence of this demonstration against him, placed him under the protection of Rome, the senate readily undertaking to espouse his cause. Antiochus, although unsupported by the Macedonian king, against whom the Romans had declared war, marched into Coele-Syria, and occupied that province and Palestine. Anxious, however, to prosecute a war against the Romans in Asia Minor, he caused his daughter Cleopatra to be espoused to the young king of Egypt, promising to restore Palestine and Coele-Syria as her dowry. The marriage took place about 193 B.C. Ptolemy V. died in 181 B.C., leaving three children—Ptolemy, who took the name of Philometor, or “the Mother-loving,” in gratitude to his mother for her able government of Egypt during his childhood; Ptolemy surnamed the Physcon, or “the Corpulent,” and a daughter, Cleopatra. It is thought that he was poisoned by some of the nobles of his court, who feared that he was thinking of taking their estates and heavily taxing the people to carry on a war that he was contemplating against Syria.

Ptolemy VI., called Philometor, succeeded his father at the age of six years, under the guardianship of his mother, Cleopatra, who discharged with great honour the duties of the regency. At her death, Antiochus Epiphanes, the king of Syria, who was her brother, laid claim to Cœle-Syria and Palestine. Having invaded Egypt, in 171 B.C., he defeated Ptolemy at Pelusium, and afterwards took him prisoner, on which the Alexandrians, supposing their sovereign irrecoverably lost, raised to the throne his younger brother, Physcon, with the title of Ptolemy VII. In 169 B.C. Antiochus again invaded Egypt on pretence of restoring Philometor to the throne, but retired at the command of the Romans. On the return of Philometor, Physcon was compelled to relinquish his high station; but the two brothers afterwards agreed to reign jointly, and to unite their arms against the king of Syria, who again invaded Egypt, in 168 B.C., but was compelled to withdraw his troops a second time through fear of Rome.

Being delivered from the apprehensions of a foreign enemy, the brothers quarrelled with each other, and Physcon dethroned Philometor, and obliged him to quit the kingdom.

**164** Philometor, therefore, repaired to Rome, and presented himself before the senate, which passed a decree for his restoration, and negotiated an arrangement between the two brothers. By virtue of this agreement, Physcon was acknowledged king of Cyrene, and Egypt and Cyprus were restored to Philometor. Physcon, however, being of an ambitious disposition, and not satisfied with this division, repaired himself to Rome, and obtained of the senate a decree that he should possess Cyprus. He therefore

**158** levied a numerous army, and attacked Philometor in that island; but his forces being defeated, he was taken prisoner. Instead, however, of treating his turbulent brother with that severity which his actions deserved, Philometor restored Cyrene to him, and assigned him some other territories in lieu of Cyprus.

In 151 B.C., Ptolemy VI., in conjunction with the Romans, supported the claim of Alexander Balas to the throne of Syria against the rightful heir, Demetrius; and in the year after Alexander married Ptolemy's daughter, Cleopatra. Not long after, Ptolemy, alleging that Alexander intended to murder him, took his daughter from him and gave her to

Demetrius, whom he placed on the throne of Syria. Alexander hastened from Asia Minor, where he then was, to give battle to Demetrius and his supporter. Ptolemy and Demetrius were victorious in an engagement which took place near Antioch; but the former died, five days after the battle, of wounds received in the action (146 B.C.).

On the death of her husband, Cleopatra, the queen of Egypt, endeavoured to secure the succession for her son; but some of the principal lords declaring for Physcon, it was agreed that the latter should marry his sister, the widow of his brother, and reign jointly with her during his life, and that the son of Philometor should be declared next heir to the crown. Physcon, however, had no sooner obtained the kingdom by this marriage, than he murdered the young prince in his mother's arms. Ptolemy VII. assumed the name of Euergetes, or "the Benefactor," which his subjects changed into Kakergetes, or "the Evil-doer," with great propriety, for he was the most cruel, wicked, and despicable of the Ptolemies who swayed the Egyptian sceptre. He frequently inundated the streets of Alexandria and Cyrene with blood. He allowed the foreigners who composed his guard to plunder and massacre the inhabitants of the former city at their pleasure. The few that escaped fled into other countries, and left their native land desolate. He then invited strangers to re-people the place, and, by his edicts, admitted them to all the rights and privileges of the former citizens.

The Romans sent ambassadors, at whose head was Scipio Africanus, to visit Greece and Macedonia, which had been subjected to their government, and to proceed in succession to the courts of Syria, Egypt, Pergamus, and Bythnia. Physcon received them with every mark of distinction, and displayed before them his riches, and the beauty of his kingdom. They were soon convinced that nothing was wanted but a prince of abilities and application to render Egypt one of the most powerful states in the universe.

Physcon falling in love with his niece, who was also named Cleopatra, but surnamed Cocce, he married her, having first divorced her ill-fated mother. That he might deprive the city of Alexandria of the chief source of its strength, he ordered the gymnasium to be set on fire, in which the young men were assembled, all of whom perished in the flames or

were slaughtered by the king's mercenary guards. The

**129**

B.C.

people, however, obliged him to retire to Cyprus with his spouse, and placed his divorced queen on the throne. Ptolemy VII. therefore ordered his son Memphitis, whom the repudiated Cleopatra had borne to him, to be put to death, and his mangled limbs to be sent in a box to his mother. These acts of cruelty served only to embitter the people against the tyrant, and when he landed with troops that he had raised in Cyprus for the purpose of regaining the throne, Cleopatra raised a powerful army to oppose him. The forces of Physcon, however, defeated those

**117**

B.C.

of Cleopatra, and the tyrant returned to Alexandria, where he died, in the sixty-seventh year of his age.

Notwithstanding his oppressive and iniquitous conduct, he was a patron of literature, conversed with facility on all literary subjects, and enriched the Alexandrian library with many valuable books. By his niece Cleopatra he had two sons—Lathyrus, so called from a pea-shaped wart on his face, and Alexander; and three daughters, Cleopatra, Selene, and Tryphæna. He also left an illegitimate son, Ptolemy Apion, who became king of Cyrene, and left his kingdom to the Romans at his death, in 96 B.C.

Ptolemy VII. left the crown to his widow, who might appoint as her successor either of her sons she thought proper. Accordingly, she made choice of Alexander, the youngest, as being the easiest to govern; but the people obliged her to recall Lathyrus from Cyprus, whither he had fled for safety, and to suffer him to participate in the throne. Ptolemy VIII., however, had not long enjoyed the regal dignity, before his mother found means to occasion a revolt

**106**

B.C.

among the Alexandrians, who rose in a general tumult against their sovereign, and would have torn him in pieces, if he had not fortunately embarked in a vessel, which immediately set sail, and carried him beyond the impending danger. Cleopatra instantly sent for Alexander, and having caused him to be proclaimed king of Egypt as Alexander I., obliged Lathyrus to be content with the island of Cyprus.

Soon after this revolution, the inhabitants of Ptolemais, being driven to the utmost extremities by Alexander Jan-næus, king of the Jews, sought the assistance of Lathyrus, who went immediately to their relief. But they, fearing that



the alliance of Ptolemy VIII. might prove as prejudicial to their interests as the enmity of Alexander, resolved to rely entirely on their own exertions, and not to admit any auxiliaries. Lathyrus, therefore, irritated at their conduct, turned his arms against them as well as against Alexander, and defeated the Jews with great slaughter.

In the meantime Alexander I., the younger brother of Ptolemy VIII., suffered all the restraints of slavery under the specious appearance of sovereign authority; and having endeavoured to make his escape from Egypt, the queen formed a conspiracy against his life, which Alexander turned against that of the projector. As soon as it was known that he had caused his mother to be assassinated, the Egyptians rose in a tumult, and drove him from the throne, which they restored to Ptolemy VIII.

89

B.C.

Alexander, endeavouring to return to Cyprus, was killed, and left a son, who was also named Alexander. Lathyrus died, after reigning eleven years jointly with his mother in Egypt, seventeen in Cyprus, and eight alone in Alexandria after the death of Cleopatra. He left a legitimate daughter, Cleopatra,\* called Berenice, and two illegitimate sons, Ptolemy, called Auletes, or "the Flute player," and another Ptolemy, who subsequently became King of Cyprus.

81

B.C.

On the decease of this prince, the sceptre devolved to his daughter Cleopatra; but Sulla, who was at that time dictator at Rome, sent Alexander, the nephew of Lathyrus, and son of Physcon, to assume the reins of government. On his arrival in Egypt he was persuaded to espouse the princess, who had been placed on the throne six months before that period; but Cleopatra becoming an object of aversion, either on account of her person, or her share in the regal dignity, he cruelly assassinated her nineteen days after the marriage. After this barbarous transaction, Alexander reigned a few months, but rendered himself so obnoxious to his subjects that they expelled him. He took refuge in the city of Tyre, whither he had sent great part of his treasures, and where he died.

\* To obviate many obscurities in the Egyptian history, it is necessary to observe that all the males of the royal family had the name of Ptolemy, and all the females that of Cleopatra, though they were distinguished from each other by proper denominations. By some writers Alexander I. and Alexander II. are styled Ptolemy IX. and Ptolemy X., but it is less confusing to style them as they are called here.

By his last will he declared the Romans heirs to his wealth and his dominions. The Roman senators, however, considered the will as invalid, as far as it related to the *kingdom*, but sent to Tyre for the *effects* which had been bequeathed.

The Egyptians bestowed the crown on Ptolemy IX., called Auletes, who, knowing that he possessed only a contested title to his new dignity, purchased an alliance with the Romans at the price of six thousand talents, which he could not raise without burdening his people with very heavy taxes. This occasioned a general discontent; and the people at last broke into open revolt.

80

B.C.

Auletes, however, privately withdrew from Alexandria, and went to Rome to seek assistance in regaining his kingdom. This the Senate were disposed to grant, and passed a decree for his restoration; but no active attempt was made to put it in force and carry it out, owing to the opposition shown by a powerful party at Rome, headed by Cato, who were altogether indisposed to permit interference in the affairs of Egypt. Pompey, however, who favoured his cause, advised Ptolemy to apply to Gabinus, who was then proconsul of Syria, and who undertook to reinstate the king for the sum of about two millions sterling.

58

B.C.

In the meantime the Egyptians had placed the diadem on the head of Berenice, the daughter of Auletes, who married Archelaus, high priest of Comana, and pretended son of Mithridates the Great. Gabinus entered Egypt with a numerous army, and ultimately Archelaus was killed in battle, and Auletes placed on his throne. Berenice was sacrificed to the resentment of her inhuman father; and most of the wealthy citizens were put to death by command of the king, who confiscated their estates, that he might pay the reward which he had promised to Gabinus.

55

B.C.

Auletes died four years after his re-establishment in the kingdom, and thirty after he had first assumed the government. He left two sons, both called Ptolemy; and two daughters, Cleopatra and Arsinoë; and he bequeathed his crown to his eldest son and daughter, whom he commanded to marry, and to govern with equal authority. And because they were both under age he recommended them to the Romans, who appointed Pompey the young *prince's* guardian.

51

B.C.

As Ptolemy, the successor of Auletes, was a minor, Pothinus, a eunuch, was appointed prime minister, and Achilles commander of the army. These men, from self-interested motives, deprived Cleopatra of her share in the government. This princess, therefore, quitted the kingdom, and retired immediately into Syria, where she raised a powerful army, which she led into Egypt against her husband and his ministers. While the troops of both were in sight of each other, near Pelusium, Pompey, who had just lost the battle of Pharsalia, was seen approaching the coast of Egypt, and sent to Ptolemy to request permission to enter his kingdom. The ministers of the king, however, resolved to put Pompey to death, in order to secure the friendship of Cæsar.

48  
B.C.

In the meantime Cæsar, who had been in close pursuit of Pompey, arrived at Alexandria just as the news of the perfidious assassination reached that city. On being presented with the head and ring of his deceased rival, he turned aside with horror, and melted into tears. Cæsar demanded payment of the money which was due to him from Auletes for an alliance with the Romans, and that Ptolemy and Cleopatra should disband their armies, and appear before him for the decision of their differences. Having summoned a general assembly, he caused the will of Auletes to be publicly read, and decreed, as guardian and arbitrator, that Ptolemy and Cleopatra should reign jointly in Egypt. Pothinus, however, dreading the resentment of Cleopatra, requested Achilles to attack Cæsar with his army, and drive him from the metropolis. In consequence of this, several actions took place between the Egyptians and Romans, in which the latter were uniformly victorious; and Ptolemy himself was drowned in the Nile, in attempting to escape from the conquering army. Cæsar finally succeeded in bestowing the crown on Cleopatra, whom he loved very much, and whom, through motives of policy, he obliged to marry her younger brother, Ptolemy, then only eleven years of age. At length, the conqueror of Pharsalia tore himself from the arms of the crafty Egyptian, and left with her a son, called Cæsarion.

Cleopatra caused her husband to be poisoned. After the death of Cæsar, she openly espoused the party of the Second Triumvirate; but being suspected of having aided Cassius—one of Cæsar's murderers, who had suffered defeat and com-

mitted suicide at Philippi—she was summoned to appear before Marc Antony, at Tarsus, in Cilicia. Antony, however, could not summon sufficient resolution to resist the fascinating charms of the Egyptian queen, who soon obtained an absolute authority over him.

**41** A misunderstanding having arisen between Antony and Cæsar's nephew, Octavian, the most powerful of the triumvirate,\* the former sailed into Italy with two hundred ships, against his colleague ; but a reconciliation being effected, he married Octavia, the widow of Marcellus and sister of Octavian. Antony, however, soon hastened

**40** back to Alexandria, where he again indulged, without restraint, in every species of luxury and dissipation. He conducted himself entirely by the counsels of Cleopatra, and, at her desire, placed with her on the throne of Egypt her son Cæsarion, whom she had borne to Cæsar. Antony also added to that kingdom Libya, Cyprus, and Cœle-Syria. To the three children whom he had by her he also assigned kingdoms, Alexander being named king of Parthia (which was as yet unconquered by Rome), Media, and Armenia ; Ptolemy, King of Syria, Phœnicia, and Cilicia ; and Cleopatra, Queen of Cyrene.

In compliance with the advice of some of his partisans, Antony declared war against Octavian, and at the same time sent a divorce to Octavia ; but, instead of leading his valiant soldiers to the field, when victory might reasonably have been expected, he still continued to banquet and revel with Cleopatra.

**31** At length, Octavian having obtained a powerful force, the two hostile armies prepared to engage, and the fleets put to sea. A memorable and decisive naval battle took place at the mouth of the Ambracian Gulf, near Actium, in sight of both armies. The victory was for some time doubtful, and was disputed with great vigour and resolution ; but, in the middle of the engagement, Cleopatra drew off the whole Egyptian squadron and her ill-fated lover immediately followed her. To complete the misfortunes of Antony, the army revolted to his enemy.

After many fruitless proposals, Antony sent deputies to demand life of Octavian, on the shameful condition of residing at Athens as a private person, provided Cleopatra and her

\* See the "*History of the Roman Republic*," vol. iii. of this series.

children might retain the government of Egypt ; but this deputation was equally unsuccessful with the former. Cleopatra, however, entered into a private negotiation with Octavian, who insinuated that she ought to abandon and even kill Antony, and she at length consented to deliver up to him the most important places in Egypt. Incensed at the treachery of the queen, Antony wished to sacrifice her to his resentment ; but she shut herself up, with two female attendants and a slave, in a mausoleum which she had 30 built, and then caused it to be reported that she had B.C. killed herself. Immediately Antony's violent transport of anger was converted into the deepest grief ; and he fell upon his sword, and gave himself a wound of which he afterwards died.

Cleopatra having heard of his desperate state, sent to inform him that she was still alive, and wished to see him. On receiving this intelligence, Antony suffered his wound to be dressed, and by means of ropes was conveyed by the queen and her two female attendants into the apartment of Cleopatra, where he died soon after. The queen obstinately persisted in remaining in the mausoleum, which she would suffer no person to enter ; but while one of the negotiators of Octavian engaged her attention with proposals, another entered the window through which Antony had been conveyed. Finding herself surprised, she attempted to stab herself with a poniard, but was prevented.

Cleopatra employed all her arts to inspire Octavian with the same sentiments towards her as had before inflamed the hearts of Julius Cæsar and Marc Antony. Octavian, however, did not appear to be affected either with her person or conversation, and merely advised her to take courage, and to rest assured that his intentions were equitable. The queen, therefore, being convinced that she was designed as an ornament to the victor's triumph, resolved to avoid approaching infamy by a voluntary death, and applying an asp\* to her left arm, sunk immediately into a lethargy, and expired. Thus ended the family of Ptolemy Lagus, the founder of the Græco-Egyptian monarchy. After Cleopatra's death, Egypt was reduced to a Roman province, and governed by a procurator sent from Rome.

\* A kind of serpent peculiar to Egypt and Libya, and of a venomous nature.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Ptolemy V. Epiphanes .....	B.C. 205	Accession of Alexander II. ....	B.C. 81
Cœle-Syria and Palestine taken from Egypt by Antiochus the Great..	„ 203	Ptolemy IX. Auletes placed on the throne, who buyssupport from the Romans .....	„ 80
Accession of Ptolemy VI. Philometor.....	„ 181	Expulsion of Ptolemy IX. Berenice his daughter ascends the throne.....	„ 58
Attack on Egypt by An- tiochus Epiphanes un- successful .....	„ 171	Restoration of Ptolemy IX., and murder of Berenice.....	„ 55
Division of the kingdom between Ptolemy VI. and Physcon .....	„ 164	Ptolemy X. and Cleopa- tra associated on the throne.....	„ 51
Ptolemy VII. Physcon succeeds at his bro- ther's death .....	„ 146	Civil war between Pto- lemy X. and Cleopa- tra—The library at Alexandria partly de- stroyed by Julius Cæsar .....	„ 47
Divorce of Cleopatra, his brother's widow, by Physcon, who marries her daughter, his niece	„ 142	Ptolemy X. defeated by Cæsar, and drowned in crossing the Nile— Ptolemy XI. and Cleo- patra associated in the kingdom.....	„ 46
Physcon compelled to retire to Cyprus, but returns the same year	„ 129	Octavian defeats An- tony and Cleopatra at Actium .....	„ 31
Accession of Ptolemy VIII., who is asso- ciated on the throne with his mother .....	„ 117	Death of Cleopatra and Antony — Egypt be- comes a Roman Pro- vince .....	„ 30
Cleopatra compels Pto- lemy VIII. to retire to Cyprus, and asso- ciates Alexander I. with her on the throne	„ 106		
Alexander I. dethroned, and slain — Restora- tion of Ptolemy VIII.	„ 88		

## DYNASTY OF THE PTOLEMIES OR LAGIDÆ.

Ptolemy I. Soter .....	B.C. 306	Cleopatra Cocce and Alexander I. ....	B.C. 106
Ptolemy II. Philadel- phus .....	„ 284	Ptolemy VIII. restored.	„ 88
Ptolemy III. Euergetes	„ 246	Cleopatra Berenice .....	„ 81
Ptolemy IV. Philopater	„ 221	Alexander II. ....	„ 80
Ptolemy V. Epiphanes .	„ 204	Ptolemy IX. Auletes ...	„ 80
Ptolemy VI. Philometor	„ 180	Cleopatra Berenice II....	„ 58
Ptolemy VII. Physcon .	„ 145	Ptolemy IX. restored ...	„ 55
Cleopatra Cocce and Pto- lemy VIII. Lathyrus	„ 117	Cleopatra and Ptolemy X.	„ 51
		Cleopatra and Ptolemy XI	„ 46

## CHAPTER III.

## THE TRIBES OF CANAAN, PHOENICIA, SYRIA, AND ARABIA.

## 1. MOAB AND THE MOABITES.

Lot, the progenitor of the Moabites, was the nephew of Abraham, who carried him from Haran in Mesopotamia into the land of Canaan, whence they were compelled by famine to remove into Egypt. When they separated, Abraham resigned the plain of Jordan to Lot, who fixed his abode in the neighbourhood of Sodom, and afterwards in the city itself. He continued to reside in Sodom, till the Deity, offended with the unnatural wickedness of the place, sent two angels to destroy it. Flying, with his two daughters, from this execrable country, he went to the mountains on the east of the Dead Sea, where he dwelt in a cave. 1898  
B.C.

In this solitude, the two young women, fearing that they should die childless, contrived to have issue by their father; and each gave birth to a son. The child of the elder daughter was Moab, the father of the Moabites.

The descendants of Lot settled in the country situated east of Jordan and the Dead Sea, on each side of the Arnon, from which they expelled the giant race of Emims. The capital was called Ar or Rabbah-Moab. Their government was monarchical; their religion, idolatry; and their chief employments of a pastoral nature.

Balak, the son of Zippor, enjoyed the regal dignity when the Israelites were encamped in a part of their own acquisitions, called "the plains of Moab." Alarmed at the approach of a strong and victorious people, whom he was not able to resist, Balak sent messengers to request that Balaam, a famous prophet, or diviner, in whose prayers and imprecations the Moabites had great confidence, would immediately come, and curse the tribes who had occasioned such uneasiness to the king and his counsellors. After some delay, arising from the command of God not to comply with the request of Balak, Balaam commenced his journey. The ass on which he rode, seeing an angel with a drawn sword in his hand, attempted three times to turn out of the way; and, upon being as often struck by her irritated master, God miraculously opened her mouth, and she expostulated with him for his ill-timed severity. 1452  
B.C.

Balaam, however, allured by the presents which had been promised him, prepared to pronounce maledictions against the Israelites ; but, contrary to his inclination, he could only bless them, and, to the great mortification of Balak, declared that a curse should attend him who presumed to curse that happy people. The king, therefore, commanded him to depart immediately ; and Balaam returned home, after giving Balak and the Moabites most wicked counsel against Israel.

The Israelites having returned to idolatry, were chastised by the hand of Eglon, king of Moab, who kept them in a state of subjection during eighteen years, and imposed on them a heavy tribute. Ehud, a Benjamite, who was sent to pay this tribute, killed Eglon, and delivered his nation from slavery. During the reign of 1343 B.C. David, the Moabites were subjugated by the Israelites, whose successes or misfortunes they shared ; and on the revolt of the ten tribes, they became subject to the kings of Israel. In conjunction with the Ammonites they made an unsuccessful attack on 1040 B.C. Judah in the reign of Jehoshaphat. At length, they were intermingled and confounded with the great nations which ravaged those countries, where some of their descendants still remain under the general denomination of Arabs, or Arabians. 896 B.C.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Moab, the ancestor of the Moabites born ...	B.C. 1897	Moab—Death of Eglon, King of Moab...	B.C. 1343
Balak, son of Zippor, King of Moab, reigned.....	„ 1452	Moabites subjugated by Israelites .....	„ 1040
Slavery of Israelites to		Judah invaded by the Moabites .....	„ 896

#### 2. AMMON AND THE AMMONITES.

The Ammonites were the descendants of Ben-ammi, the offspring of Lot and his younger daughter. After having expelled the gigantic Zanzummims, or Zuzims, they possessed themselves of the country to the north of Moab, between the rivers Ammon and Jabbok. They were governed by kings, and devoted their time principally to agriculture. Their chief deity was called Moloch, and to this idol they sacrificed their children.



The Ammonites were frequently engaged in war with the Israelites, with various success. They were conquered by the children of Israel in the time of Jephthah. Nahash, one of their kings, having reduced to the last extremity the city of Jabesh, which he besieged, the inhabitants offered to surrender and to acknowledge him as their sovereign. Nahash answered, "I will consent to your proposal, only on condition that every one of you shall lose his right eye." The inhabitants asked seven days to deliberate on this terrible proposition; but succours arriving, under the command of Saul, the barbarian was defeated, and disappointed of his inhuman triumph.

1143

B.C.

1095

B.C.

On the accession of Hanun, son of Nahash, David, king of Israel, sent ambassadors to him, with an offer of continuing that amity which had subsisted between him and the late king. Hanun, persuaded by his ignorant counsellors, treated the ambassadors in the most contemptuous manner, and sent them back to their master. This base and ungrateful conduct occasioned a war. The Ammonites appealed to the Syrians for aid, which was at first granted, but ultimately withdrawn. The war terminated in the destruction of Hanun and the capture of his capital, Rabbah-Ammon. In the time of Judas Maccabeus, the Ammonites reappeared; but at length their city Jasser was burnt by the Jews, and those who escaped the sword were carried into captivity, and held in slavery by their captors or sold as slaves to the neighbouring nations.

1037

B.C.

1034

B.C.

164

B.C.

In the beginning, however, of the second century of the Christian era, the Ammonites were again a numerous nation; but towards the conclusion of that period their name vanished, and losing all distinctness of nationality they were blended with the Arabians.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Ben-ammi, ancestor of the Ammonites .....	B.C. 1897	Insulting conduct of Hanun — Siege and capture of Rabbah-Ammon .....	B.C. 1034
Ammonites defeated by Jephthah .....	„ 1143	Ammonites defeated by Judas Maccabeus ...	„ 164
Siege and relief of Jabesh .....	„ 1095		

## 3. MIDIAN AND THE MIDIANITES.

The Midianites, who were the descendants of Midian, the fourth son of Abraham by Keturah his wife, inhabited a tract of country in Arabia Petraea, between the Dead Sea, the Red Sea, and Idumea. Their situation rendered them shepherds and merchants. The former led a wandering life, and dwelt in movable tents. The latter also travelled from place to place in caravans, leaving the care of their cattle to the women. The Midianites were famous for their camels. Their form of government seems to have been monarchical, for kings and princes are found among them. Their religion, which was at first pure, subsequently became tinctured with idolatry. Jethro, whose daughter Moses married, was a priest of Midian.

The Midianites took part with the Moabites in inciting Balaam to curse Israel, and for their conduct they were slaughtered by the Israelites, and their wives and children sent into slavery. Recovering their strength and territory, in after years they oppressed the Israelites; but were finally conquered by Gideon, after they had kept the children of Israel in servitude for seven years. After undergoing several vicissitudes of fortune, the Midianites were intermingled and lost in the more celebrated nations of Arabia.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Midian, son of Abraham and father of the Midianites, born ...	B.C. 1853	Midianites and Moabites combine against Israel .....	B.C. 1452
Moses married a woman of Midian .....	„ 1531	Midianites finally conquered by Gideon ...	„ 1245

## 4. EDMON AND THE EDMONITES.

The Edomites, who were the posterity of Esau or Edom, the son of Isaac and Rebekah, inhabited a tract of territory situated between Midian, the River Jordan, and the Mediterranean Sea. Their cities were built upon inaccessible rocks, and very strongly fortified. They were a proud, unsociable, and imperious people. They

kept on foot numerous forces, and possessed a great number of armed chariots. They carried on a great commerce by the way of the Red Sea and the Mediterranean, but principally with Tyre and Sidon. Being the descendants of Isaac, they preserved the practice of the rite of circumcision, and the worship of one God, with the exception of some idolatrous ceremonies, by which their maintenance of the true faith was impaired. Their form of government was at first patriarchal, but afterwards that of an elective kingdom.

Though the Edomites were the descendants of Isaac by Esau, and the Jews descended from the same father by Jacob, these two nations were ever at enmity with each other. The antipathy which Esau constantly maintained against his brother Jacob, for defrauding him of his birth-right, is well known; and the same sentiment seems to have become hereditary among their descendants, who were frequently at variance with each other.

The inhabitants refused to allow the Israelites to pass through Edom on their way to Canaan. **1452**  
B.C.

**1093** Saul made war upon them, and the  
B.C. Moabites and Ammonites, after conquering the Philistines; and David, his successor,

made them tributary to him, after conquering them, **1040**  
B.C.

**839** and placing garrisons in their land. Ama-  
B.C. ziah, king of Judah, gained a great victory over them in the Valley of Salt; and subsequently they

were conquered by Nebuchadnezzar. At length the Edomites were finally reduced by John Hyrcanus, **129**  
B.C.

who compelled them to embrace the Jewish religion; and their name was entirely lost in that of their conquerors.

It is necessary to observe that Edom is called Idumæa by the Roman philosopher Pliny, the Greek geographer Strabo, and other ancient writers.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Esau, father of the		Rendered tributary by	
Edomites, born .....	B.C. 1836	David .....	B.C. 1040
Edomites oppose Israel-		Defeated by Amaziah	
ites on their way to		in Valley of Salt.....	„ 839
Canaan.....	„ 1452	Finally reduced by	
Edomites defeated by		the high priest John	
Saul .....	„ 1093	Hyrcanus.....	„ 129

## 5. AMALEK AND THE AMALEKITES.

The Amalekites are supposed by some to be descended from Amalek, the son of Esau's first-born, Eliphaz; but they are mentioned in the Bible as existing at a far earlier date (about 1917 B.C.), and the Arabians have a tradition that they sprung from Amalek, a son of Ham. Their arts, sciences, and trade, were probably similar to those of their neighbours the Edomites, Egyptians, and other people. Their form of government was monarchical; and their general character was that of a haughty and imperious race. They had attained to such a height of power and magnificence, that Balaam calls them "the first of the nations;" but the God of Israel decreed that "their name should be put out under heaven."

Perpetual wars with their neighbours, and especially with the Jews, insensibly ruined the Amalekites. They were defeated by the Israelites at Rephidim, when **1491**  
B.C.

**1249** on their way to the promised land, and  
B.C. just after they had quitted Egypt. They were defeated, with the Midianites, by Gideon; and

subsequently Saul, at the head of a victorious army, ravaged their country, massacred the inhabitants without distinction, and took Agag, their king, prisoner, instead of killing him in accordance with God's

**1056** commands. To revenge this injury, the Amalek-  
B.C. ites reduced Ziklag to ashes, and took David's two wives prisoners. David therefore attacked them in

their retreat, and slew most of their forces. In the days of Hezekiah, they were utterly destroyed or dispersed by the Simeonites, who took possession of their country; and thus was fulfilled the prediction of Balaam: "Amalek was the first of the nations; but his latter end shall be that he perish for ever."

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Amalekites first mentioned in the Bible...	B.C. 1917	and Agag taken by Saul .....	B.C. 1079
Israelites encounter the Amalekites at Rephidim .....	„ 1491	Ziklag taken by the Amalekites. Their subsequent defeat by David .....	„ 1056
Amalekites defeated by Gideon .....	„ 1249	Amalekites destroyed by the Simeonites ...	„ 725
Amalekites massacred,			

## 6. CANAAN AND THE CANAANITES.

Under the general denomination of Canaanites are included the seven nations distinguished in the Scripture by the names of Hittites, Jebusites, Amorites, Girgashites, Hivites, Perizzites, and Canaanites properly so called, who were descended from Canaan, the son of Ham. Those who resided on the sea-coasts were merchants. In the north was a nation known to the Greeks by the name of Phœnicians. Those who had an inland situation, were partly employed in rural occupations and partly in the exercise of arms. The Canaanites were, therefore, shepherds, husbandmen, soldiers, artificers, and merchants. Their religion was undefiled to the days of Abraham, who acknowledged Melchizedek as a priest of the most high God ; but in the time of Moses, they had become incorrigible idolaters, and compelled their children to pass through the fire to Moloch. They were comprehended in a great number of states under subjection to chiefs or kings ; and all public business was transacted in popular assemblies.

The history of the Canaanites exhibits only a long series of wars with the Israelites, by whom they were commonly defeated ; and their defeats were always accompanied with marvellous and disastrous circumstances. At length, oppressed by Israel on the one hand, and assaulted by the powerful armies of Pharaoh on the other, the remnant of the Amorites, Hittites, Hivites, Perizzites, and Jebusites, in the days of Solomon, became tributary to the Jews, who employed them in the most laborious and servile works. The Phœnicians, however, were not tributary to Solomon, but, remaining free in their possessions on the sea-coast, gradually rose to a great height of fame and prosperity as merchants and traders, and planted numerous colonies on the coasts of the Mediterranean, of which Carthage was the most important.

## 7. PHILISTIA AND THE PHILISTINES.

This people were descended partly from the Casluhims, and partly from the Caphtorims, the posterity of Mizraim ; and having expelled the Avim or Avites, even to Gaza, they took possession of the country which was the chief, if not the best, part of the Land of Promise, situated on the coast of the Mediterranean, between Joppa and the eastern confine

of Egypt. Their most ancient form of government was administered by kings, all of whom were denominated Abimelech. In the days of Moses this monarchy was changed into an aristocracy of five lords; but the supreme authority was again vested in kings, among whom was Achish, who reigned at Gath in the time of Saul and David.

The Philistines were a warlike and industrious people, and, in the days of Abraham, remarkable for the purity and simplicity of their manners; but they gradually degenerated into all the vices of idolatrous nations, and became the most irreconcilable enemies of the Israelites. They were greatly addicted to trade; entertained a very fond veneration for their deities; and performed their religious ceremonies with much pomp and magnificence. They possessed the arts and sciences in common with the most ingenious of their contemporaries; and to them is ascribed the invention of the bow and arrow.

The Philistines appear to have been a scourge in the hand of God to chastise his own people, the Jews. As if the destinies of these two nations were continually to balance each other, after having mutually exhausted their strength, they passed together under the dominion of the Assyrians. From this period the Philistines were tributary to the great monarchies of the East, as they succeeded each other, till their total destruction was accomplished, when Gaza was taken by Alexander the Great. The principal wars of the children of Israel with the Philistines, which are too numerous to mention in detail here, are recorded in the Bible in the book of Judges, the two books of Samuel, the two books of Kings, and the two books of Chronicles.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Gaza first mentioned in the Bible .....	B.C. 2218	Philistines conquered by David throughout his reign, from 1055 B.C. to B.C. 1015	
Israelites in subjection to the Philistines, and delivered by Samson ..	1117	Philistines conquered and rendered tributary to Jehoshaphat .....	912
Ark taken by Philistines, in time of Eli, the high priest .....	1116	Invade Judah in Jehoram's time .....	887
Defeated by Samuel at Mizpeh ..	1096	Take Bethshemesh and Ajalon .....	740
Saul, defeated by Philistines at Mount Gilboa, kills himself .....	1055	Ashdod, a city of the Philistines, taken by the Egyptians .....	630

Gaza taken by Alexander the Great .....	B.C. 332	Incorporated with Syria by Pompey.....	B.C. 62
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## 8. PHŒNICIA AND THE PHŒNICIANS.

The original inhabitants of Phœnicia were the descendants of Canaan, grandson of Noah ; but these were supplanted or absorbed by a body of the descendants of Shem, who migrated thither from Chaldea about the time that **1925**  
Abraham removed from his native country, having **B.C.**  
gradually proceeded up the valley of the Euphrates, and moved westward until they came to the shore of the Mediterranean, or, as it was often called, Great Sea. Phœnicia was a narrow tract of country lying between Mount Lebanon, which divided it—Cœle-Syria on the east, and the Mediterranean Sea on the west. It was enclosed on the north by Syria, and on the south by the Holy Land. Sidon was the capital ; and the other principal cities were Tyre, Aradus, Tripolis, Byblus, Sarepta, and Berytus.

The Phœnicians must originally have been instructed in the worship of the true God ; but, gradually degenerating, they became immersed in idolatry and superstition. The principal objects of their adoration were Baal-Samon, or the sun ; Baal, whose altars were usually covered with burnt sacrifices ; Astarte, to whom drink-offerings were poured out as to "the queen of heaven ;" Melcarth, the Tyrian Hercules, whose rites were performed with great solemnity ; and Thamuz, or Adonis, the favourite of Astarte.

The Phœnicians either invented, or materially improved, the excellent sciences of arithmetic and astronomy. Their glass, purple, and fine linen were the products of their own country and invention. They were so well skilled in architecture that Solomon requested their assistance in the erection of his magnificent temple. They engrossed the commerce of all the western hemisphere, and planted colonies in numerous places on the shores of the Mediterranean. Among these were Utica and Carthage, on the coast of Africa, and Gades, afterwards Cadiz, in Spain. Cyprus also was colonised by the Phœnicians at a very early period, and continued to be a Phœnician dependency until it was taken by Amasis, king of Egypt, about 550 B.C. In navigation they were unparalleled for experience, skill, and intrepidity, and even sailed as far as

Britain for tin. The fish, which afforded the Tyrian purple, and tended to enrich the inhabitants, is now either lost, or unknown to the present natives.

Phœnicia was divided into several small kingdoms, of which the most considerable were those of Sidon, Tyre, and Arad. Sidon, the eldest son of Canaan, founded the city which bore his name. This was the most northern city of the Holy Land, or country of the Israelites; and at the distribution of the land among the twelve tribes was assigned to Asher, with Tyre and the whole coast southward as far as the promontory of Carmel; but Asher, instead of subduing the Phœnicians, was brought into subjection by them.

The next Sidonian monarch mentioned in history is Tetramnes, who assisted Xerxes in his expedition against Greece.

**352** Next to this monarch, or soon after him, came  
**B.C.** Tennes, under whom the Sidonians became subject to the Persians. After a while they attempted to recover their ancient liberties; but Artaxerxes III. Ochus marched against them with all his forces, with a determination to subjugate or destroy them. While the unsuspecting Sidonians were preparing for a vigorous defence, Tennes marched out of the city with a body of five hundred men, and a hundred of the chief citizens, to the enemy's camp, and delivered them up to Artaxerxes, who sentenced the citizens to death, as authors of the rebellion. The other inhabitants, perceiving that the Persians were admitted within their walls, shut themselves up with their wives and children, and, setting fire to their houses, perished to the number of 40,000. The Sidonians rebuilt the ruined city, and elected one Strato to fill the throne, but ever after bore an unconquerable aversion

**333** to the Persian name. A few years after their  
**B.C.** calamity, they submitted without repugnance to Alexander the Great, eagerly embracing that opportunity of shaking off a heavy and detestable yoke. Strato, however, opposed this measure; and Alexander, therefore, deprived him of the crown.

Tyre was an important city when the Israelites entered Canaan. The Tyrians themselves declared that it was founded before 2700 B.C. It was built, in all probability, by the Chaldean emigrants, 800 or 900 years later. Abibal is the



first king of Tyre of whom history makes mention; but nothing is recorded relative to his actions, or the length of his reign. He was succeeded by his son Hiram 1056 B.C. who, at the request of Solomon, furnished that prince with wood from Lebanon for building the temple of Jerusalem, and for fitting out his fleets.

On the demise of Hiram, the crown, according to the Jewish historian, Josephus, devolved on his son Baleazer, and was successively worn by Abdastartus, 1012 B.C. Astartus, Astarimus, Phelles, Ithobal, or Ethbaal, Badezor, Mettinus, and Pygmalion. Of these princes, Ithobal, or Ethbaal, was the father of Jezebel, the wife of Ahab, king of Israel. He was a priest of Astarte, who usurped the crown, and extended his power over Sidon and a great part of Phœnicia. His great grandson, Pygmalion, murdered Sichæus, his brother-in-law, to obtain his treasures, which, however, Eliza, or Dido, the widow of Sichæus, concealed and carried away in ships. She was accompanied by many adventurers, and sailing first for Cyprus, they afterwards steered their course for Africa, where they landed, and founded the celebrated city of Carthage. 878 B.C.

The next king of Tyre mentioned in history was Elulæus, in whose reign the city was blocked up by Sargon, who ordered the aqueducts to be stopped, and all the conveyances of water to be cut off. The Tyrians, however, held out for five years, when the siege was raised (717 B.C.). A new city had now been built, on a rocky island, opposite the old city on the mainland, and in the new city was the fortress or stronghold of the town, which, from its position, was a place of great natural strength. Ithobal II. is spoken of in Holy Writ as a proud, arrogant, and assuming prince, who affected a knowledge of all secrets, and even ranked himself among the gods. In his reign Nebuchadnezzar besieged Tyre for thirteen years, when he took the old city, and partially destroyed it. The Phœnicians, however, who now turned their attention to the enlargement of the new city, and did not rebuild the old one, soon recovered the effects of the siege, and engaged, as before, in commerce, supplying the Jews with cedar and other timber for the rebuilding of Jerusalem (536 B.C.). About this time Phœnicia became voluntarily a dependency of Persia, and assisted that power

on the east by the Dead Sea, the river Jordan, and the Sea of Tiberias; on the north by Phœnicia; and on the east by Edom, or Idumea. The Jewish lawgiver was induced, by the serenity of the air, the fertility of the soil, and the incomparable excellence of the fruits of Palestine, to describe it as "a land that flowed with milk and honey; a land of brooks and waters, of fountains that sprung out of the hills and valleys; a land of wheat and barley, of vines, pomegranates, figs, and honey; a land where is no lack or scarcity of anything." At present, however, a great part of it is uncultivated, and reduced to a mere desert.

Subsequent to its conquest by the children of Israel, the Land of Promise, in its most extensive sense, was divided by lot among the twelve tribes. Two tribes and a half were settled beyond Jordan, on the east side; and nine and a half on the west side, which was styled more properly the Holy Land.

The religion of the Jews, though formerly clouded with mysterious ceremonies, and at present totally eclipsed by the radiance of the Gospel, must ever be considered as an object of veneration. Their *laws*\* were admirably adapted to honour their Creator, and to render themselves completely happy; their *sacrifices* were calculated to remind them of their failings, which required a daily atonement, and to shadow forth the vicarious sacrifice that should, "in the fulness of time," be offered for the sins of mankind; and even their most trivial *ceremonies* were replete with instruction, or typical of the gracious designs of the Almighty.

Their government has been justly distinguished by the name of theocracy, from its being under the immediate direction of God. Both their civil and religious customs were founded upon their laws. The laws most strictly enjoined the proscription of idolatry under all its forms; the indispensable obligation of circumcision; and the observance of the sabbath. The principal solemnities were, the Passover, which was instituted in memory of their coming out of Egypt; the Pentecost, or the anniversary of the law being delivered upon Mount Sinai; the feast of tabernacles, which represented their wandering forty years in the wilderness; the feast of

\* A full, clear, and satisfactory account of the laws of the Jews is contained in Holy Writ, and may be read in the Book of Leviticus.

trumpets, which announced the first day of the year, and of each month, or the new moons. In the sabbatic year, and in that of the jubilee, the former of which took place every seventh year, and the latter every forty-ninth, the people were not to sow, reap, nor trade, but for the poor.

The Jews were extremely careful to cultivate the knowledge of theology among themselves, and had places of public instruction, called the schools of the prophets; but they seem to have been ignorant of the science of astronomy, even at a time when it was well known to the neighbouring nations. Their language was the Hebrew, which is pure, primitive, natural, and strictly conformable to the simplicity of the Jewish patriarchs. It is highly probable that they possessed the art of writing very early; having, indeed, acquired it in Egypt. The Decalogue was miraculously written by the finger of God on the tables of stone; but it is probable that Moses made use of a less cumbersome material upon which he wrote the rest of his laws.

The arts in which the Israelites excelled were those of war, husbandry, poetry, and music. The first was natural to them, on account of the numerous enemies whom they had to vanquish prior to their possession of the Land of Promise. Before the time of David, however, no mention is made of regular troops.

The Jews carried on few trades or manufactures before the reign of Solomon. With respect to commerce, they received rich stuffs, linen, gold, &c., from Tyre, in exchange for corn, balm, and other excellent commodities. They were, however, totally ignorant of navigation, and when Solomon sent some ships into foreign countries, he was obliged to have them manned with foreign sailors.

## 2. THE HISTORY OF ABRAHAM AND ISAAC.—ESAU AND JACOB.

1996 B.C. to 1739 B.C.

Abram, afterwards called Abraham, the progenitor and founder of the Jewish nation, was born at Ur of the Chaldees. His brothers were Nahor and Haran, and he had a half-sister, Sarai, afterwards called Sarah, who subsequently became his wife. He was about seventy-three years of age at the time of his quitting the place of his

1996  
B.C.

- 1923** nativity with his father Terah, and of removing into  
 B.C. Haran, or Charran, where he had not been long  
 settled before Terah died. His brother Haran had  
 died before the family quitted Ur, but he left a son, Lot, who  
 accompanied his uncle Abram and other relatives. After  
 burying his father, Abram, according to the command of God,  
 migrated with his wife, his nephew, and his servants, into the  
 Land of Promise, and pitched his tents in the neighbourhood  
 of Sichem, or Shechem, where he built an altar unto  
 the Lord. Here God appeared to him again, con-  
**1921** firmed his former promise, that in his seed all the  
 B.C. nations of the earth should be blessed, and assured him that  
 his posterity should possess the country in which he was now  
 a stranger. A great famine, however, obliged Abram to re-  
 move into Egypt, where he had not long resided before  
 Pharaoh, king of that country (supposed to be one  
 of the Shepherd Kings, who had recently established  
 themselves in Egypt), who did not know that Sarai  
 was the wife of the patriarch, for Abram had said she was his  
 sister, became enamoured of her, and took her to court. The  
 Almighty interposed on behalf of his servants, and Pharaoh  
 voluntarily restored Sarai to her husband.

The famine having ceased, Abram returned into Canaan,  
 and settled between Bethel and Ai, while Lot, who had ac-  
 companied him to Egypt, settled near Sodom and Gomorrah,  
 which were destroyed not many years after. Having no children

- by his wife Sarai, by her persuasion Abram took to  
 him her handmaid Hagar, who brought forth a son,  
 called Ishmael. Soon after this God renewed his  
 promise of a numerous posterity to Abram, and changed his  
 name to Abraham, and his wife's name to Sarah. At the  
 time appointed, Sarah was delivered of the child of promise,  
 who was circumcised on the eighth day, and named  
 Isaac, agreeably to the command of God. For it  
 had been ordered, that both Abraham and his pos-  
 terity should undergo the rite of circumcision, as an indelible  
 sign and seal of the covenant contracted between God and  
 them.

A misunderstanding taking place between Sarah and Hagar,  
 Abraham was obliged to send away the latter and her son.  
 Ishmael became the father of the Arabs, who, agreeably to  
 the promise made to the patriarch, never were subjugated.

More than twenty years after this event, Abraham was commanded by the Almighty to sacrifice his only and dearly-beloved son Isaac. The venerable patriarch prepared to obey the command, without presuming to expostulate on the severity of these orders; but when he had bound his son, and was stretching out his hand to give the fatal blow, God countermanded his injunction, and renewed all his promises to his well-tried servant, who had not attempted to withhold his *only son* from him. There could not be given a more striking example of faith in God's word than the father's readiness at God's bidding to kill his son through whom he hoped his promised posterity would come.

1872

B.C.

Sarah having died (1860 B.C.), Abraham became desirous of seeing Isaac married to some branch of his own family, and sent his servant to Haran, whence he brought the beautiful Rebekah, the daughter of Bethuel, and granddaughter of the patriarch's brother, Nahor. Though greatly delighted with this marriage, Abraham espoused Keturah, after he had continued a widower several years. By her he had six sons, who settled in Arabia, where some traces of their name still exist. Abraham died in the hundred and seventy-fifth year of his age (1822 B.C.).

1857

B.C.

1853

B.C.

After some years Rebekah was delivered of two sons, Esau and Jacob, of whom the former was a great hunter and the darling of his father; but the latter was the favourite of his mother, who knew, by divine revelation, that he should inherit the blessing. Esau sold his birthright to Jacob, who also contrived to deprive him of the blessing of Isaac, their father. This conduct incurred the hatred of Esau, who obliged Jacob to seek an asylum in the house of his uncle Laban, at Padan-aram. Here he was kindly received, and married Leah and Rachel, the two daughters of Laban, for whom he served their father fourteen years. The two wives and their handmaids brought forth the twelve sons of Jacob, who became fathers of tribes, and one daughter, named Dinah. Of these, two only, Joseph and Benjamin, were the sons of Rachel. Reuben, Simeon, Levi, Judah, Issachar, Zebulon, and Dinah, were the children of Leah; Dan and Naphtali, the sons of Rachel's handmaid Bilhah; and Gad and Asher, the sons of Leah's handmaid Zilpah.

1836

B.C.

1760

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The birth of Abram, afterwards Abra- ham .....	B.C. 1996	Destruction of Sodom and Gomorrah.....	B.C. 1897
Arrival of Terah, Abram, and Lot in Haran ...	„ 1923	Birth of Sarah's son Isaac .....	„ 1896
First coming of Abram and Lot to Canaan ...	„ 1921	Isaac brought to Mount Moriah to be offered as a sacrifice.....	„ 1872
Abram and Lot in Egypt .....	„ 1919	The death of Sarah.....	„ 1860
Second coming of Abram and Lot to Canaan .....	„ 1918	Marriage of Isaac and Rebekah .....	„ 1856
The birth of Hagar's son, Ishmael.....	„ 1910	Birth of Esau and Jacob ..	„ 1836
		Death of Abraham .....	„ 1822
		Departure of Jacob for Padan-aram .....	„ 1760

## 3. THE STORY OF JOSEPH.—THE PATRIARCHS IN EGYPT.

1739 B.C.—1635 B.C.

After a lapse of many years, in which he had accumulated a fund of wealth, Jacob set out to revisit his native land, and acquainting Esau with the prosperous state of his affairs, he announced to him his return from Mesopotamia. As soon as

1730

B.C.

Esau received this information, he went forth to meet his brother with so numerous a train of followers, that Jacob concluded he came for his destruction. The interview with Esau, however, was pleasingly affecting; and the two brothers were perfectly reconciled. Esau returned to his adopted country; and Jacob, as possessing the birthright of the elder, resided in the paternal inheritance.

Jacob entertained for his son Joseph a partiality, which excited the jealousy of his other children. Their

1710

B.C.

envy was suddenly converted into the most irreconcilable hatred, by this darling of his father relating to them some remarkable dreams, which clearly prefigured his future exaltation, and the humiliation of his brethren. They, therefore, took an opportunity of selling him to a troop of Ishmaelites; and, dipping Joseph's parti-coloured coat in the blood of a kid, sent it to their father, who, recognising the garment, exclaimed, in an agony of despair: "Joseph is without doubt rent in pieces." The Ishmaelites carried Joseph into Egypt, and sold him to Potiphar, an officer of the king's guard, whom he served with such diligence, zeal, and fidelity, that he was soon entrusted with the entire management of

his master's affairs. His mistress, however, was an evil-hearted woman, and tried to tempt Joseph to do wrong ; and when he refused, she told her husband that Joseph had insulted her. Joseph was, therefore, cast into prison, where he found the king's chief butler and chief baker, who acquainted him with some remarkable dreams, which he readily interpreted, and also predicted the precise time of their accomplishment.

About this time, the Egyptian monarch was greatly disturbed by two remarkable dreams, which portended seven years of plenty, to be followed by seven years of famine. These dreams the magicians were unable to explain, but Joseph, on being sent for out of prison at the recommendation of the chief butler, rightly interpreted them. Joseph was, therefore, honoured with Pharaoh's warmest esteem, and raised to be ruler over all the land of Egypt. He then erected granaries, appointed proper officers in every place, and arranged matters with such excellent foresight and application, that before the expiration of the seven plentiful years he found himself in possession of corn enough to provide for the people during the coming seven years of famine. In the meantime, the king had bestowed on him in marriage, the daughter of Potipherah, priest of On, by whom he had two sons, Manasseh and Ephraim.

1715  
B.C.

The scarcity occasioned by the seven years of famine was severely felt in the land of Canaan, and the adjoining nations. Jacob therefore sent ten of his sons into Egypt to purchase grain, and retained only Benjamin at home. Joseph affected to consider them as impostors and spies, and required that *nine* of them should depart and carry provision for their family, while *one* remained in prison, till the arrival of their youngest brother should prove their sincerity. The patriarch was much grieved at the detention of Simeon, but utterly refused to suffer Benjamin to go down into Egypt. At length, however, the increasing pressure of famine, the entreaties of his children, and the solemn engagement of Judah to bring back Benjamin with him, induced Jacob to grant his consent. At this time Joseph revealed himself to his brethren, and embraced them with inexpressible tenderness.

Pharaoh being informed that Joseph's brethren were come, gave orders that the family should be removed into his dominions ; and Joseph, in compliance with the wishes of his

royal patron, sent for his father. When Jacob heard of the safety and exalted situation of Joseph, he fainted beneath the oppressive emotions of his soul; and on seeing the rich presents, and the carriages, which had been sent by the command of Pharaoh, he exclaimed, "Joseph, my son, is yet alive; I will go and see him before I die." The patriarch and his sons received the royal permission to settle in the land of Goshen, where they received a constant supply from the granaries during the famine, and were entrusted with the care of the flocks and herds belonging to the king.

**1706**  
B.C.

When Jacob found that his death was at hand, he called his sons around his bed, and gave them his blessing, and predicted what should happen to each of the tribes of which they were to be the fathers. He also requested that his body might be carried into Canaan, to the sepulchre of his fathers; which Joseph promised and performed. At the period of Joseph's death, he also sent for the heads of the children of Israel, assured them that God would certainly fulfil his immutable promise, and establish their posterity in the land of Canaan, and requested that they should also convey his body to the sepulchre of his ancestors.

**1689**  
B.C.

**1635**  
B.C.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Return of Jacob to Canaan .....	B.C. 1739	Joseph made ruler of Egypt .....	B.C. 1715.
Death of Rachel at Ephrath .....	„ 1729	The Israelites established in Goshen.....	„ 1706.
Death of the patriarch Isaac.....	„ 1716	Death of the patriarch Jacob .....	„ 1689.
Joseph sold into bondage by his brethren ..	„ 1729	The death of Joseph....	„ 1635.

#### 4. THE ISRAELITES IN BONDAGE.—THE DELIVERANCE FROM EGYPT.

1635 B.C. to 1491 B.C.

The persecution of the Israelites commenced under the reign of a new monarch, of whom it is said in the Bible that he "knew not Joseph," and who in all probability was one of the Diospolite kings who had driven out the Shepherd Kings,



and therefore either knew little of, or cared little for, the important services he had rendered to the country. Finding, at the expiration of several years, that neither the hardships imposed upon the Israelites, nor the cruelties which his officers exercised towards them, could prevent their great increase, he strictly commanded the two chief Hebrew midwives to destroy every new-born male. These women, however, fearing God, and abhorring the idea of so barbarous an office, neglected the royal command. Pharaoh therefore issued out an edict, under the severest penalties, that every male child of the Hebrews should be thrown into the Nile as soon as it was born, and that only the females should be suffered to live.

1573

B.C.

It happened that Amram, the son of Kohath and grandson of Levi, and Jochebed, the daughter of Levi, had two children, Miriam and Aaron, before the promulgation of this edict; but Moses being born some time after, and proving a beautiful child, the parents felt great reluctance to destroy him. They accordingly concealed him three months, but fearing a discovery, they enclosed him in an ark of bulrushes, and committed him to the mercy of the waves. The child was taken out of the water by order of Pharaoh's daughter, who gave him the name of Moses, adopted him for her son, and caused him to be instructed in all the learning of the Egyptians.

1571

B.C.

Moses, however, felt an aversion to the oppressors of his own nation, and having killed an Egyptian who had exercised some wanton cruelty on one of the Hebrews, he fled with precipitation into the land of Midian, where he continued forty years. Here God appeared to him, and commanded him to return to Egypt, and to demand from Pharaoh the dismissal of the Israelites. With reluctance, Moses undertook this mission, but being joined by his brother Aaron, he commenced his journey. On their arrival, they imparted their errand to the elders of Israel, and presented themselves before the king. But the preamble, "Thus saith Jehovah, the God of Israel," sounded so strangely in the ears of Pharaoh, that he peremptorily answered, he knew not Jehovah, neither would he accede to their request; and he ordered the taskmasters to double the labour of the Hebrews.

1531

B.C.

1491

B.C.

Endowed with the power of commanding nature and of

enforcing obedience, Moses again approached the presence of the king, and threw down his rod, which was instantly changed into a serpent. He stretched out the same rod over the running and standing waters, which were immediately converted into blood. He brought upon the land such a vast multitude of frogs, that even the ovens, beds, and tables of the Egyptians swarmed with them. He touched the ground with his miraculous rod, and the dust was transformed into innumerable swarms of lice. He filled the air with flies, whose bite was extremely venomous and painful. He smote the cattle of the Egyptians with a grievous murrain, and covered the Egyptians themselves with painful and dangerous sores and boils. Moses also wrought other prodigies, which were proofs of the divine vengeance; but the last and most terrible miracle consisted in smiting all the first-born, from the eldest son of the king to the first-born of the imprisoned captive, and even to that of the meanest animal. On this signal calamity befalling the Egyptians, Pharaoh, who had hitherto obstinately refused to allow the Israelites to depart, pressed them to be gone; and the Egyptians, in the general consternation, lent the departing people an immense quantity of jewels and valuable vessels of gold and silver, so glad were they to get rid of sojourners whose presence brought on them such terrible troubles.

Moses accordingly commenced his march towards the desert at the head of 600,000 men able to bear arms, besides aged men, women, children, servants, and strangers. The Almighty guided their progress by a pillar of fire by night, and by a column of smoke by day. The Israelites were calmly proceeding, when they beheld the army of the Egyptians pursuing them, and the Red Sea before them. In pursuance of the divine command, Moses stretched out his rod over the sea, and the waters divided, and the Israelites passed safely through to the opposite shore. He again stretched out his rod over the sea, and the waves, hitherto miraculously suspended, rushed suddenly into their bed, and overwhelmed the impious Pharaoh with all his forces.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Moses, the future law-giver of Israel, born	B.C. 1571	Return of Moses to Egypt at God's command, and departure of the Israelites.....	B.C. 1491
Flight of Moses from Egypt .....	„ 1531		

## 5. THE WANDERINGS OF THE ISRAELITES IN THE WILDERNESS.

1491 B.C. to 1451 B.C.

The Israelites now marched towards the wilderness of Zin, where a scarcity of provisions gave rise to the most ungrateful and impious murmurings. Such, however, was the love, the mercy, and the incomprehensible goodness of their Creator, that he sent them a prodigious quantity of quails, and every morning the ground was covered with a species of bread called *manna*. When they wanted water, Moses struck the rocks, which afforded them an abundant supply. By the direction of God, they came to the foot of Mount Sinai, where they were commanded to sanctify themselves, to observe attentively what passed, and to keep at a reverential distance. On the appointed day, Moses ascended the mount in the midst of a cloud, while the congregated tribes beheld the top of Sinai covered with fire and smoke, and felt its foundation shake beneath their feet. After the sound of the trumpet ceased, and the thunder died away, the voice of the Deity was distinctly heard to pronounce the ten principal commandments, which were also inscribed on tables of stone by the finger of God. When Moses, who had remained on Sinai for forty days, descended from the mount, he perceived the people dancing round a golden calf, which Aaron had made at their request. Moses was violently enraged at their conduct; but the people repenting of their idolatrous worship, God was pleased to pardon them.

Moses having procured two new tables to supply the place of those which he had broken, demanded of the Israelites a free-will offering for the tabernacle, sacerdotal vestments, utensils, &c., which God had commanded him to prepare. The work was performed with such diligence and alacrity, that in less than six months the tabernacle, with all its splendid furniture and costly apparatus, was completed, and set up at the foot of Mount Sinai, where Aaron and his sons began to offer sacrifices according to the ceremonial law. At this time the first census of the Israelites was taken by Moses.

A violent murmuring of the people at Taberah, however, occasioned the destruction of the extremities of the camp by a miraculous fire. An audacious complaint against the manna

1491  
B.C.1490  
B.C.

was followed by a dreadful distemper, which swept vast numbers to an untimely grave. An insurrection, resulting from the report of the spies relative to the Promised Land, caused God to affirm, that none of the Israelites who were above twenty years of age, except Joshua and Caleb, should enter into that rich inheritance. Even Moses himself, because he had neglected to ascribe to God the glory of an act which the Almighty had commanded him to perform, was only permitted to see the Promised Land from the summit of a mountain.

Moses having numbered the people a second time, was  
**1451** commanded to ascend Mount Nebo, that he might  
 behold the Promised Land. Accordingly, he caused  
 B.C.

Joshua to be solemnly nominated for his successor ; and having assembled the people, he recapitulated all that had happened since their departure from Egypt, and enforced the observance of the divine precepts by the most engaging motives. He then ascended Mount Nebo, and there died, in the hundred and twentieth year of his age ; and his body was interred by the Almighty in so private a place, that no mortal could discover it.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

First census of the Israelites by Moses, and construction of the tabernacle .....	B.C. 1490	Second numbering of the Israelites by Moses, and his death on Mount Nebo .....	B.C. 1451
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#### 6. THE ISRAELITES UNDER JUDGES.

1451 B.C. to 1095 B.C.

Joshua having succeeded to the office of Moses, sent spies  
**1451** to reconnoitre the Promised Land ; and these in-  
 forming him that the Canaanitish nations were  
 B.C. much alarmed at the approach of the Israelites, he  
 led the people against Jericho, which was dismantled by the  
 shouts of the Jews, by the sound of rams' horns, and by  
 carrying the ark of the covenant round the walls, and not an  
 inhabitant of which was spared, except the family of Rahab,  
 who had concealed the spies. The passage of the Jordan,  
 whose waters divided and stood on a heap, the stopping of  
 the sun in its course, and the remarkable shower of hailstones,  
*which tended to overthrow the confederated army of the*

Canaanitish nations, greatly facilitated the conquest of the country. The Land of Promise was divided by lot among the tribes, according to their families, the Reubenites, Gadites, and half tribe of Manasseh, having their inheritance eastward of Jordan, while the rest of the tribes were located on the west side. Joshua having assembled all the heads of the tribes of Shechem, prevailed on them to renew their covenant with the true God, in the most solemn and public manner. He died soon after, in the hundred and tenth year of his age.

**1427**  
B.C.

A great part of the land of Canaan remaining unconquered by command of the Almighty, the tribe of Judah, under the conduct of Caleb, the son of Jephunneh, marched against the king of Bezek; pillaged and burnt Jerusalem, then inhabited by the Jebusites; compelled the gigantic sons of Anak to seek refuge in the cities of Hebron and Kirjath-Sepher; and struck such terror into the inhabitants of Ekron, Gaza, and Askelon, that they yielded their possessions to an army, which fought under the banner and protection of Omnipotence. The other tribes, however, did not extirpate their enemies, but married some of the Canaanitish maidens, whose idolatrous practices they imitated; and this abandonment of God was the cause of the defeats which they experienced.

**1426**  
B.C.

For the sin that they had thus committed in forsaking the worship of God to follow the idolatry of the Canaanites, the Israelites were permitted by the Almighty to fall into subjection to Chushan-rishathaim, king of Mesopotamia, who kept them in bondage for eight years, when they were delivered by Othniel (1402 B.C.).

**1410**  
B.C.

**1354** They were next subjugated by Eglon, king of Moab, and served him eighteen years till they were delivered by Ehud (1336 B.C.). Jabin, king of Canaan, was next permitted to obtain the mastery over the Israelites, but from him they were delivered by Deborah and Barak, after twenty years' subjection (1296 B.C.).

**1316**  
B.C.

The Israelites having again provoked the displeasure of God, were now deprived of the privilege of a judge, and became enslaved to the Midianites. But they were at length delivered by Gideon, who, under the auspices of heaven, dispersed the Midianitish forces, and slew

**1256**  
B.C.

the kings, Zebah and Zalmunna (1249 B.C.). Gideon, at the time of his death, left the Israelites in a peaceful and flourishing condition.

The people of Israel being oppressed by the Philistines and Ammonites, Jephtha, the son of Gilead, marched against them, and vowed that if God would crown his attempts with success, he would sacrifice the first living creature that should come out of his house to meet him at his return. It happened, that the unhappy victim of this imprudent vow was his *only daughter*, who only requested a respite of two months to mourn her untimely fate.

Samson, the son of Manoah, repeatedly vanquished the Philistines (1161 B.C. to 1120 B.C.), by concealing on what depended the great strength which he had received; but suffering the secret to be wrested from him by his mistress Delilah, he expiated his imprudence by a tragical death, which he rendered fatal to his enemies. At this time different parts of the Holy Land appear to have been judged by different judges, for Samson lived during the time of Samuel, and, indeed, was born about ten years after he was.

Eli was both high-priest and judge, but being an old man, and not having brought up his sons as he should have done, his two sons, Hophni and Phineas, took advantage of his age and weakness of mind, and committed the grossest impieties and abominations. God, therefore, commanded young Samuel in a vision to assure Eli of the most awful retribution, and to upbraid him with his ingratitude. The Philistines defeated the Israelites, and took the ark, which so affected the old man, that he fell from his seat, and died.

Samuel acted in the double capacity of prophet and judge, and in him ended the government by judges. The elders of Israel complained to him that his sons were unworthy to succeed him, and told him that the nation required a king. Samuel expostulated with the people on the impolicy and dangerous tendency of their proceedings; but finding his eloquence exerted in vain, he, in compliance with the command of God, promised to gratify their desire. Accordingly, he anointed Saul, the son of Kish, and presenting him to the people, as the man whom God had resolved to entrust with the care of Israel, caused *him to be proclaimed king*.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The conquest of the city of Jericho.....	B.C. 1451	The Ammonites defeated by Jephtha ...	B.C. 1143
The death of Joshua at Shechem .....	„ 1427	Birth of the prophet Samuel .....	„ 1171
Deliverance of Israel from Chusan-rishathaim by Othniel.....	„ 1402	Birth of Samson .....	„ 1161
Eglon, King of Moab, killed by Ehud .....	„ 1336	Death of Hophni and Phineas, and their father Eli. The ark taken by the Philistines .....	„ 1141
Israelites delivered from Jabin, King of Canaan, by Deborah and Barak .....	„ 1296	Death of Samson. The Philistines defeated at Ebenezer by Samuel ..	„ 1120
Midianites defeated by Gideon .....	„ 1249	The Israelites desire a king .....	„ 1096

## 7. THE REIGNS OF SAUL, DAVID, AND SOLOMON.

1095 B.C. to 975 B.C.

The first action of Saul, after he obtained the regal dignity, was a complete victory over the Amalekites, which gained him the esteem of the people. In several affairs of importance, however, especially in sparing Agag, when he had been sent to exterminate the Amalekites (about 1079 B.C.), he acted contrary to the advice of Samuel, and even disobeyed the positive commands of God. Samuel, therefore, declared to him that his disobedience would cause the regal dignity to be transferred to a more deserving person; and about sixteen years after this sentence, the prophet was sent to Bethlehem to anoint David, the son of Jesse, in the room of the reigning prince.

1095  
B.C.1063  
B.C.

Soon after this event, Saul was tormented by an evil spirit, or by a deep melancholy, which could be dispelled only by the melodious sounds of the harp, on which David excelled. The son of Jesse swept the tuneful strings with such inimitable sweetness, skill, and pathos, that the monarch's disorder was soon apparently cured. The miraculous victory which David gained over the gigantic champion of the Philistines, gave birth to the most ardent friendship between Jonathan and him, and the Scripture says, "their souls were knit together." But Saul's admiration of that intrepid act was

soon converted into jealousy ; and he gave David his daughter Michal in marriage, for the purpose of engaging him in hazardous enterprises. He also endeavoured to procure the death of David by suborned assassins, and even by his own hand.

Samuel died after having judged Israel forty-six years from the decease of Eli, and lived about thirty-five after the elevation of Saul to the regal dignity. Saul,

finding himself deserted by a great number of his forces, and being unable through his sons to obtain guidance from the Almighty respecting the event of an approaching engagement with the Philistines, went in disguise to Endor, and prevailed on a woman who had a familiar spirit, to raise up the prophet Samuel. When the vision appeared, Saul apologized for adopting so unlawful an expedient. Samuel told him that, having alienated the love of God by his dis-

obedience, he should on the morrow lose both his life and his kingdom. This prediction was fully verified ; and together with Saul perished all his

sons, excepting Ishbosheth, who was proclaimed king by Abner at Mahanaim. The death of Ishbosheth,

however, rendered David sovereign of the whole nation ; and, ultimately, he was formally acknowledged king by all the tribes.

The reign of David, though shaded, was in some respects brilliant, and its commencement prosperous. He triumphed over his foreign enemies, suppressed all intestine commotions, revived among the Israelites an attachment to religion, and inspired them with a taste for the arts. He treated with kindness and distinction Mephibosheth, the son of Jonathan, whom he invited to his court.

But during the siege of the metropolis of Hanun, king of the Ammonites, a circumstance occurred which fixed

an indelible stain on the character of David, and tarnished the lustre of his former actions. Being enamoured of a beautiful woman, named Bathsheba, the wife of his valiant captain, Uriah, he contrived the death of the husband, who was employed at the siege, and then took her as his own wife.

From this period, the reign of David was only a series of calamities. His kingdom was ravaged by disastrous wars, by *pestilence*, and by famine. His sons committed murder and



other heinous crimes. The nation loudly murmured and revolted. Absalom, his favourite son, rebelling against him, the king was obliged to fly from his capital, loaded with the imprecations of his people, who had before adored him. A battle terminated the rebellion and the life of this ungrateful son, whose death the king lamented exceedingly, exclaiming, "O! Absalom, my son, my son, would God I had died for thee!"

The declining state of David induced Adonijah, the next in birth to Absalom, to make preparations for his accession to the throne. The king, however, being reminded of his promise in favour of the son of Bathsheba, and understanding the design of Adonijah, caused Solomon to be proclaimed his successor by sound of trumpet. David expired in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and in the fortieth of his reign. 1015  
B.C.

The Almighty having offered in a dream to grant to the young king whatever he should think proper to ask, Solomon earnestly requested that such a degree of wisdom might be given as might enable him to govern the children of Israel with suitable prudence and sagacity. In consequence of this modest request, he was endowed with a greater share of wisdom than had ever been possessed by any mortal. The exquisite discernment of this monarch was soon exhibited to advantage, in the sentence which he pronounced relative to the infant that was claimed by two women; and his excellent judgment appeared in the choice of his counsellors and officers, in the institution of his laws, the economy of his household, the strength of his army, and the multitude of his subjects.

Having contracted with Hiram, king of Tyre, for a large quantity of timber, and for a sufficient number of workmen, Solomon laid the foundation of the Jewish temple in the fourth year of his reign; and in seven years this stupendous and magnificent edifice was completed. It was dedicated with all imaginable pomp: the ark of the covenant was placed in the most holy place between the cherubim; and a sacred cloud visibly filled the building, and descended on the priests while they prepared the victims for sacrifice. 1012  
B.C.  
  
1004  
B.C.

Notwithstanding the deserved reputation of Solomon for wisdom, he married in his old age a surprising multitude of

women, without distinction of country, faith, or family ; and permitting himself to be led away by them into gross and abominable idolatries, he was assured in a dream that, as the result of his ingratitude, his successors should mourn the loss of the kingdom, except the tribe of Judah.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Saul chosen king of the children of Israel ...	B.C. 1095	David becomes king over all Israel .....	B.C. 1048
David anointed king by Samuel .....	„ 1063	Death of David and accession of Solomon..	„ 1015
Death of Samuel at Ramoth .....	„ 1060	Building of Solomon's temple commenced..	„ 1012
Defeat and death of Saul and his son Jonathan at Gilboa .....	„ 1056	Dedication of Solomon's temple .....	„ 1004
David becomes king over Judah .....	„ 1055	Death of Solomon, and division of the kingdom .....	„ 975

#### 8. THE KINGS OF JUDAH AND ISRAEL.

975 B.C. to 599 B.C.

JUDAH.		ISRAEL.	
Rehoboam .....	B.C. 975	Jeroboam I. ....	B.C. 975
Abijah .....	„ 958	Nadab .....	„ 954
Asa .....	„ 955	Baasha .....	„ 953
Jehoshaphat .....	„ 914	Elah .....	„ 930
Jehoram .....	„ 889	Zimri .....	„ 929
Ahaziah .....	„ 885	Omri .....	„ 925
Athaliah .....	„ 884	Ahab .....	„ 918
Joash .....	„ 878	Ahaziah .....	„ 897
Amaziah .....	„ 840	Jehoram .....	„ 896
Uzziah .....	„ 810	Jehu .....	„ 884
Josham .....	„ 758	Jehoahaz .....	„ 857
Ahaz .....	„ 742	Jehoash .....	„ 839
Hezekiah .....	„ 726	Jeroboam II. ....	„ 825
Manasseh .....	„ 698	Zachariah .....	„ 773
Amon .....	„ 643	Shallum .....	„ 772
Josiah .....	„ 641	Menahem .....	„ 772
Jehoahaz .....	„ 610	Pekahiah .....	„ 761
Jehoiakim .....	„ 610	Pekah .....	„ 759
Jehoiachin .....	„ 599	Hoshea .....	„ 730
Zedekiah .....	„ 599		

Rehoboam, the son and successor of Solomon, went to Shechem to receive the homage of the Israelites ; but they refused to acknowledge his sovereignty unless he would redress some popular grievances.

**975**  
B.C.

The king, however answered in a haughty tone, that he intended to rule them with greater severity than his father ever exercised, and that he would chastise the slightest murmur with scorpions instead of whips. This harsh reply occasioned an immediate revolt of ten of the tribes, which chose Jeroboam, an enterprising youth of the tribe of Ephraim, to be their sovereign. Judah and Benjamin, however, remained under the government of Rehoboam, whom they conducted to Jerusalem.

Jeroboam, being apprehensive that the custom of going thrice in the year to Jerusalem might in time reconcile his new subjects to the house of David, sacrificed religion to his security, and set up two golden calves at Dan and Bethel, whither he ordered the people to repair with their offerings instead of going to the temple. He also built some idolatrous edifices, and selected priests for his imaginary deities from the lowest class of the people.

In the meantime, multitudes of persons who abhorred the infamous practices of Jeroboam flocked to the metropolis of Rehoboam, and renewed their former allegiance. But this latter prince suffering idolatry to be established in his kingdom, God punished him by an invasion of the Egyptians, under their king, Shishak, who reduced Jerusalem, and pillaged the temple and palaces of their most costly ornaments.

971

B.C.

Abijah, or Abijam, the successor of Rehoboam, no sooner ascended the throne, than he attacked and defeated Jeroboam, king of Israel, who lost 300,000 men, and who could not recover his strength for three

958

B.C.

955

B.C.

years. Abijah was succeeded by Asa, a pious monarch, who applied himself zealously to the work of reformation. He was attacked by a numerous army of Ethiopians, under the command of their king, Zerah, whom he routed in a pitched battle.

941

B.C.

The immediate successors of Jeroboam fell victims to various conspiracies. Ahab, the son of Omri, ascended the throne of Israel, in the thirty-eighth year of Asa's reign. He married Jezebel, a princess of Sidon; and this marriage proved a constant source of wicked and idolatrous actions. It happened that the vineyard of Naboth, an Israelite who feared God, was so situated as to

918

B.C.

interfere with some plans formed by the king, who wished to purchase it. But Naboth refusing to sell the inheritance of his fathers, and Ahab being chagrined at this refusal, Jezebel suborned false witnesses against Naboth, who was condemned, stoned, and his vineyard confiscated to the use of the king. God, therefore, commanded the prophet Elijah to declare to Ahab that dogs should lick his blood, and devour the limbs of the cruel Jezebel; and this prophecy was accordingly fulfilled.

In Ahab's reign there was a great and terrible famine in Israel, and this was followed by an invasion of the kingdom by Benhadad, king of Syria, who laid 906  
siege to Samaria. God delivered Ahab B.C.

**901** and his people out of the hands of the Syrian king;  
**B.C.** but instead of killing the foe who was given into his hands, Ahab made a treaty of peace with him.

At the time that Ahab reigned over Israel, the throne of Judah was occupied by the pious king Jehoshaphat, who triumphed over a league formed against him, and found in his success the reward of his virtues.

Ahaziah succeeded to the throne of his father Ahab; but happening to hurt himself by a fall, he sent to Baalzebub, the idol of Ekron, requesting to be informed 897  
respecting his recovery. Upon which the prophet B.C.  
Elijah assured him that, because he had consulted the deity of Ekron in contempt of the true God, he should never leave his bed till he was carried to his grave; and this prediction was soon accomplished by the death of Ahaziah.

He was succeeded by his brother Jehoram, who, in conjunction with Jehoshaphat, king of Judah, led an expedition against the Moabites, and defeated them. 896  
B.C.

In this expedition, the troops were succoured with water miraculously procured by Elisha. In his reign, Benhadad, the Syrian general, advanced with a numerous host

**892** against Samaria, which he reduced to such extremities, that the head of an ass was sold for eight B.C.  
pieces of silver, and the women were obliged to eat their own children. At length the Almighty caused a sudden alarm in the enemy's camp, and the Syrians fled with such precipitation, that they left their tents, provisions, horses, and riches, for a spoil to the Israelites, whose wants were then so abundantly supplied that a measure of fine flour was

sold for one shekel, and every other article in proportion, at the gate of Samaria.

Jehu, who conspired against Jehoram, and slew him at Jezreel, whither he had gone to be cured of wounds received in battle with the Assyrians at Ramoth-Gilead, slew at one time seventy sons of Ahab, and forty-two princes of the house of Judah. He also put to death all the worshippers of Baal, demolished his temple, and buried all the idols and ornaments. This conduct was so pleasing to God, that he sent to assure the new monarch that his posterity should enjoy the kingdom of Israel to the fourth generation. Jehu, however, imprudently followed the abominations of Jeroboam; and his reign was, therefore, embittered by several melancholy accidents, and he died in the twenty-eighth year after his accession to the throne.

884

B.C.

856

B.C.

Whilst Jehu was zealous in behalf of the Jewish religion, Athaliah, the daughter of Jezebel, and mother of Ahaziah, king of Judah, who had fallen by the hand of Jehu, just after he had killed Jehoram, king of Israel, endeavoured to banish the worship of God from Judea. She also wreaked her vengeance on the remains of the house of Judah; but an infant, named Joash, escaped her researches, and was at length raised to the throne. This prince apostatising from the worship of the true God, Hazael, king of Syria, committed some dreadful outrages in Judea (857 B.C.), and Joash was afterwards assassinated by his own servants.

878

B.C.

He was succeeded by his son Amaziah, who caused the murderers of his father to be punished, but whose subsequent idolatries entailed on him disgrace, captivity, and death (810 B.C.).

840

B.C.

During the last years of this reign Jeroboam II. seemed to be appointed by God to restore the kingdom of Israel to its original grandeur. He reigned forty years. To him succeeded his son Zechariah, who was the great-grandson of Jehu. From this period may be dated the downfall of the kingdom of Israel, whose subsequent history is replete with treasons, murders, anarchy, and desolation.

825

B.C.

773

B.C.

The wisdom and mild government of Uzziah, or Azariah, the successor of Amaziah, raised Judah to the summit of

affluence and prosperity, and he was successful against the Philistines, Arabians, and other hostile nations. This prince, however, forfeited all his honours by attempting to usurp the sacerdotal office, for which God smote him with a leprosy, of which he died. He was succeeded by his son

758

B.C.

Jotham, who triumphed over his enemies, beautified the temple, fortified his metropolis, and, at last, died in the possession of his people's warm affection. During this period the kingdom of Israel languished under the successive tyrannical reigns of Menahem, Pekahiah, and Pekah.

742

B.C.

Ahaz was no sooner seated on the throne of Judah than his impieties provoked the Almighty to punish him with an invasion by the combined forces of Israel, under Pekah, and Syria, under its king, Rezin. The Israelitish monarch had slaughtered 120,000 of the subjects of Ahaz, and taken 200,000 captives, when he was met by the prophet Oded, who prevailed on him to dismiss the prisoners with some tokens of humanity. The whole reign of Ahaz was one continued scene of misfortune and desolation.

726

B.C.

When Hezekiah ascended the throne, he perceived the source of Judah's calamities, and repaired to the temple, at the head of his nobles, to make suitable offerings for the sins of the nation. He then invited all the people to present themselves before God at the ensuing pass-over; and he pathetically represented to the idolatrous Israelites the benefits which would result from such a conduct. Immediately the populace demolished every idolatrous monument, and thoroughly purged Jerusalem before the appointed festival.

721

B.C.

Shalmaneser, king of Assyria, compelled Israel to submit to his victorious arms; and, having levelled Samaria with the ground, he carried into captivity Hoshea, the last king of Israel, with all those of his subjects who had escaped the first fury of the victors. Such was the awful destruction of the Israelitish kingdom.

713

B.C.

Hezekiah endeavoured to prevent the invasion of Judah by sending a profusion of costly presents to Sennacherib, who had succeeded Shalmaneser, and to whom he also promised an annual tribute. Sennacherib, however, sent an army against Jerusalem, under the command of Rabсарis, Tartan, and Rabshakeh. To add to the melancholy state of Hezekiah, who was at that time sick, the

prophet Isaiah, by the command of God, ordered him to prepare for the approach of death. At the intercession of Hezekiah, however, the Almighty promised that he would restore him to health, and that all the efforts of Sennacherib against him should be defeated. In confirmation of these gracious promises, the sun's shadow went backwards ten degrees on the dial of Ahaz. The destroying angel cut off in one night 185,000 Assyrians, and Sennacherib hastened back to his own capital.

Hezekiah, who, although he was a pious monarch, was proud and vain of his power, was succeeded by his son Manasseh, from whose unfortunate accession may be dated the downfall of the kingdom and religion. His diabolical actions and horrid sacrilege exceeded everything of which his most profligate predecessors had been guilty; but being taken prisoner by the king of Assyria, and carried to Babylon, where he was imprisoned, he became the most humble penitent; and, after his restoration to the throne, one of the best of monarchs. He was succeeded by his son Amon, who copied his example only in his wickedness, and perished miserably.

698

B.C.

677

B.C.

643

B.C.

Josiah assumed the reins of government at the age of eight years, and, during a long life, continued to display the good qualities which he early discovered. He caused the graven images, altars, and other objects of superstition to be burnt to ashes, or thrown into the river Kidron, and destroyed the golden calf which Jeroboam, the first king of Israel, had set up. He repaired the temple at Jerusalem, commanded the passover to be celebrated with the utmost solemnity, and strictly charged the magistrates, priests, and Levites to enforce obedience to the divine laws by example as well as by precept. He fell at Megiddo, in an engagement with the Egyptians, under their king, Pharaoh-Necho, who demanded a passage through Judæa to attack the Assyrians. With this good and pious king expired the religion, the happiness, and the glory of the nation.

641

B.C.

610

B.C.

Jehoahaz, the youngest son of Josiah, was carried a prisoner into Egypt by Pharaoh-Necho, who transferred the sceptre to his eldest brother Jehoiakim, on condition of receiving an annual tribute. The latter prince, however, was a monster of

impiety and cruelty. His palaces were founded on murder, and embellished by rapine. Nebuchadnezzar, king of Assyria, subjugated the whole country, pillaged the temple, carried the king captive to Babylon, and afterwards restored to him the crown on condition of a tribute. After paying this tribute three years he revolted, and was slain, Jerusalem being besieged and taken by Nebuchadnezzar.

603

B.C.

He was succeeded by his son Jehoiachin, whose actions were so displeasing to the Almighty, that Nebuchadnezzar was permitted to send him and his whole court captive to Babylon. The king of Assyria stripped the temple, palace, and treasury, and set Zedekiah upon the throne, on condition of his paying a certain tribute.

599

B.C.

Zedekiah, however, endeavoured to shake off the Babylonish yoke after he had sat on the throne ten years. Nebuchadnezzar besieged Jerusalem, which, after holding out for two years and a half against the most strenuous exertions of the enemy, and the sad effects of a grievous famine, was at length taken by the troops of the king of Babylon.

587

B.C.

The city was immediately pillaged of all its treasure; the sumptuous edifice, erected to the God of Israel, was reduced to ashes; the fortifications were utterly demolished; the greater part of the buildings levelled with the ground; and the unhappy Jews were led in triumph to Babylon. Such was the melancholy catastrophe of the Jewish monarchy.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Jerusalem taken by Shishak, king of Egypt...	B.C. 971	Sennacherib's army before Jerusalem miraculously destroyed .....	B.C. 710
Great and terrible famine in Israel.....	„ 906	Josiah's solemn Passover ..	624
Siege of Samaria by the Syrians .....	„ 901	Judea invaded by Nebuchadnezzar, the king of Babylon .....	„ 605
Judah laid waste by Hazael, king of Syria ..	„ 857	Jerusalem besieged by Nebuchadnezzar .....	„ 599
Samaria besieged by Pul, king of Assyria.....	„ 771	Rebellion of Zedekiah against Nebuchadnezzar.—Renewed siege of Jerusalem .....	„ 589
Jerusalem besieged by Pekah, king of Israel. „	741	End of the kingdom of Judah.—Jerusalem taken and the Temple destroyed .....	„ 587
Samaria besieged by Shalmanezar .....	„ 724		
End of the kingdom of Israel.—The ten tribes carried into captivity. „	721		



## 9. JUDEA UNDER THE PERSIANS, MACEDONIANS, EGYPTIANS, AND SYRIANS.

587 B.C. to B.C. 167.

According to the prediction of Jeremiah, the Jews remained in captivity seventy years, dating from the first capture of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar, in 605 B.C., when a great number of people were carried to Babylon. At the expiration of this time, Cyrus permitted them to return to their native land,\* and to rebuild the sacred temple. **536**  
 The number of those who returned under the conduct of Zerubbabel, the grandson of Jehoiachin, king of Judah, who was made *tirshatha* or governor of the country, and Jeshua, the high priest, was 42,360, besides 7,337 servants of both sexes, and 200 men and women singers. In the second month of the following year, the foundation of the temple was laid with great solemnity. **536**  
 The Samaritans, however, whom the king of Assyria had sent from various parts of his dominions to re-people the country of the ten tribes of Israel, succeeded in causing the work to be suspended by authority for several years; but in the reign of Darius the temple was allowed to be rebuilt, and, being finished in three years, was **515**  
 dedicated with great joy and solemnity. **B.C.**

In the reign of Artaxerxes, the husband of Esther, the Jews received a beneficial visit from Ezra, a learned and zealous man of the house of Aaron, who obtained an ample commission to return to his native country with as many of his nation as were desirous of accompanying him. On his arrival at Jerusalem, he delivered some offerings from the Persian monarch and nobles to the priests. He then collected and set forth a correct edition of the sacred books, restored the worship of the temple to its ancient form before the captivity, and revised the Jewish liturgy. **458**  
**B.C.**

Ezra was succeeded by Nehemiah, who having received a similar commission from the king of Persia, restored the walls of Jerusalem, and beautified the city, which resumed some appearance of its ancient lustre. **445**  
**B.C.**

\* From this time the few remaining families of the Israelites, and the families of Judah and Benjamin, and the Levites that returned from Babylon, were amalgamated under the common name of Jews.

He corrected several abuses which had crept into the church and commonwealth, restored the public worship of God which had been intermitted, and enforced frequent expositions of the Holy Scriptures in buildings called synagogues, or "places for gathering together," which were erected for the purpose. After the decease of Nehemiah, the government was entirely changed, and Judea was annexed to the Persian satrapy or province of Syria, from whose governors the high-priests received their authority.

Judea being annexed to the satrapy of Syria, the governors intrusted the administration of the Jewish affairs to the high-priests, who aspired to the pontifical dignity chiefly through motives of avarice and ambition, and to whom must be ascribed the greatest part of the misfortunes that ensued.

About the thirty-fourth year of Artaxerxes Mnemon, **373** B.C. Johanan being invested with the high-priesthood, received a visit from his brother Jeshua, who asserted that Bagoses, the governor of Syria, had promised to transfer the sacred dignity to him. A dispute immediately ensued, and Jeshua was unfortunately slain by Johanan in the interior court of the temple. Johanan was succeeded by his son Jaddua, during whose pontifical office, the Jews, refusing to supply the army of Alexander the Great, drew upon them the resentment of that prince. **332** B.C. But the impending danger was averted by the submissive priests; and Alexander, on entering Jerusalem, commanded a profusion of sacrifices to be offered to the God of Israel. Jaddua was succeeded in the high priesthood by his son, Simon I.

Upon the division of the Macedonian empire, Palestine became subject to various revolutions, and to the several wars which the generals of Alexander waged against each other. It was invaded by Ptolemy I., **323** B.C. King of Egypt, who took Jerusalem on a sabbath day, and carried nearly one hundred thousand prisoners into Egypt, and settled them in Alexandria, where their good conduct induced him to grant them many **312** B.C. privileges. The Egyptian monarch was soon compelled to resign the possession of Judea to Antigonus, king of Syria, who in his turn was again vanquished by Ptolemy I., surnamed Soter. Soon after the recovery of *his country* by this prince, died Simon, the Jewish high-

priest, whose sanctity of manners and integrity of conduct acquired him the surname of "the Just," and on whose decease the high-priesthood was assumed by his brother Eleazar. On the accession of Ptolemy

292  
B.C.

284

B.C.

II. Philadelphus to the throne of Egypt, he confirmed those franchises which his father had granted to the Jews, whose friendship he endeavoured to cultivate. At the death of Eleazar, the high priest-hood was assumed by Manasses, who left it to Onias II., the son of Simon the Just.

243  
B.C.

Ptolemy IV. Philopater having succeeded to the throne of Egypt, Antiochus the Great endeavoured to wrest Judea from him ; but the Egyptian monarch led his forces against the invader, and compelled him to desist from his intention. Ptolemy, struck with the august majesty of the Jewish ceremonies, conceived an unconquerable desire of penetrating into the interior parts of the temple. By this he incurred the indignation of the Almighty, who smote him with such terror, that he was carried out half dead.

221  
B.C.

On the death of Philopater, the Jews submitted to Antiochus the Great, and Judea again became a Syrian province. Under this king the old prosperity of the Jews was partly restored, but in the reign of his son Seleucus, the troubles of this unfortunate nation under the kings of Syria commenced. Simon was succeeded in the priesthood by Onias III., a man of great piety, clemency, and prudence. An unfortunate breach, however, happened between Onias and Simon, governor of the temple, the latter of whom informed Seleucus, that the sacred edifice at Jerusalem contained immense treasures. In consequence of this information, that prince sent Heliodorus to fetch the valuables from the high-priest. The remonstrances of Onias were ineffectual, and the Syrians broke down the gates and entered the temple ; but, at this critical moment, God defended his habitation from defilement, and smote the presumptuous strangers with such a panic, that they fell down half dead.

176  
B.C.

At the accession of Antiochus Epiphanes the high-priest-hood was sold by the governors of Syria to the highest bidder ; and it fell into the hands of Joshua, the brother of Onias. This man, who adopted the Greek form of his name, Jason, and is thus known in history,

175  
B.C.

said to have purchased his office for the great sum of 360 talents. Onias was deposed and imprisoned at  
**172** Antioch. Jason, in his turn, was supplanted by a  
 B.C. Jew called Onias, who changed his name to Menelaus, the assumption of Greek names and adoption of Greek

customs being common at Jerusalem at this time in compliance with the Greek kings of Syria.  
 The Jews having made some rejoicings at a false report of the death of Antiochus Epiphanes, that prince took Jerusalem, and in three days put to death forty thousand persons, and sold as many for slaves. Not content  
**170** with this dreadful vengeance, he entered the most  
 B.C. holy recesses of the temple, defiled the sacred vessels with his

impious hands, and caused every valuable article to be seized for his own use.  
 About two years after, in consequence of the interference

**168** of Rome in behalf of the Jews, the inhuman tyrant  
 B.C. renewed his cruelties, and sent his general Apollonius, who entered Jerusalem on the sabbath-day, murdered all who fell in his way, and deluged even the temples and synagogues with the blood of the congregations. Every part of the city was then pillaged; and the most stately fabrics were razed to the ground. Opposite to the temple, the Syrians built a fortress, which commanded that edifice. Antiochus further issued a decree, which abolished the Jewish religion under the severest penalties, and enjoined the worship of the heathen deities. Atheneas, a person well skilled in the rites of heathenism, dedicated the temple of God to Jupiter Olympius; and, causing the statue of that idol to be erected on the altar of burnt offerings, he compelled the miserable Jews to offer up their adorations before it, or to endure the most exquisite torments. Altars, groves, and images were also set up in other towns of Judea, the inhabitants of which were reduced to the same pitiable extremities. Great were the sufferings of the Jews, who defied the edicts and the punishments of Antiochus. One of the principal victims of cruelty was the venerable Eleazar, who having refused to eat swine's flesh, submitted to death with firmness and resignation. Seven brethren were then successively doomed to the most exquisite tortures, while they were encouraged by their pious mother, who was last of all sacrificed with unshaken fortitude.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Decree of Cyrus for the restoration of the Jews, and the return from the captivity ...	B.C. 536	Alexander the Great visits Jerusalem .....	B.C. 332
Completion and dedication of the second temple .....	„ 515	Judea taken by Ptolemy I. of Egypt .....	„ 320
Esra sent into Judea ..	„ 459	Judea taken from Ptolemy by Antigonus of Syria .....	„ 312
Nehemiah sent to Judea as governor .....	„ 445	Judea ceded by treaty to Egypt .....	„ 302
Fortification of Jerusalem, and collection of books of Old Testament by Esra .....	„ 444	Judea becomes again a province of Syria.....	„ 204
Nehemiah's great reformation of abuses among the Jews .....	„ 433	Heliodorus attempts to rob the temple .....	„ 176
Samaritan temple built on Mount Gerizim ...	„ 420	Capture and pillage of Jerusalem by Antiochus Epiphanes.. ..	„ 170
		Persecution of the Jews by Antiochus Epiphanes .....	„ 168

## JEWISH HIGH PRIESTS.

## UNDER PERSIA.

Elisahib .....	B.C. 420	Johanan .....	B.C. 373
Joiada or Judas .....	„ 413	Jaddua .....	„ 341

## UNDER EGYPT AND SYRIA.

Onias I. ....	B.C. 321	Simon II. ....	B.C. 217
Simon the Just.....	„ 300	Onias III. ....	„ 195
Eleazar .....	„ 291	Jeshua or Jason .....	„ 175
Manasses .....	„ 276	Onias IV., also called	
Onias II. ....	„ 250	Menelaus .....	„ 172

## 10 THE JEWS UNDER THE MACCABEES OR ASMONEAN PRINCES.

168 B.C. to 63 B.C.

At length, the offended Deity vouchsafed to espouse the cause of his wretched people. Mattathias of Modin, an eminent priest of the house of Jehoiairib or Joarib, and his five sons, Joannan, Simon, Judas, afterwards called Maccabeus, Eleazar and Jonathan, having collected a considerable number of adherents, struck terror and amazement into the Syrian garrisons that held the country by the active guerilla warfare that they carried on; and the

167  
B.C.

newly-raised army overturned the heathen altars, and restored the divine worship to its original purity.

Judas Maccabeus, the eldest son of Mattathias, succeeded his father in the command of the army, and chased the Syrians from the most advantageous posts. **166** After obtaining four successive victories over Apol-  
**B.C.** lonius in Samaria, over Seron near Bethoron, and over Lysias at Emmaus, and again at Bethsura, Judas entered Jerusalem, which he caused to be purified; and **165** having commissioned the priests to cleanse the Tem-  
**B.C.** ple, he ordered the most Holy Place to be repaired, and divine worship to recommence with all possible solemnity. Judas still continuing victorious against the Syrians, Antiochus was obliged to conclude a peace with the **163** Jews, and sent to the Jewish senate letters ex-  
**B.C.** pressive of his amicable intentions. This peace, however, was by no means consonant with the inclinations of the Syrian generals, who embraced the first opportunity of attacking the Jews, and engaged the Arabians, Edomites, Ammonites, and other neighbouring nations to assist them in obtaining their revenge.

Judas, however, still remaining conqueror, he resolved to besiege the fortress on Mount Acra, opposite the Temple, which the Syrians possessed, and which prevented many persons from resorting to the Temple. This being known at the court of Syria, Antiochus Eupator, who was then on the Syrian throne, collected an immense army, which he commanded in person, and having taken Bethsura, he **163** marched to Jerusalem, and laid close siege to the  
**B.C.** Temple. But being compelled to raise the siege, he concluded a peace, and entering the city, caused the fortifications to be demolished in open violation of the treaty which he had just confirmed with the most solemn oaths. Shortly after this, Demetrius, the son of Seleucus, and eldest brother of Antiochus Epiphanes, came from Rome, and put Antiochus Eupator to death, having persuaded the army to revolt against him. He appointed Bacchides, who was governor of Mesopotamia, commandant of the city, and bestowed the high priesthood on Alcimus, whose vices rendered him contemptible.

Bacchides and Alcimus concerted means for destroying Judas; but the Jewish chief, aware of their treacherous intention, eluded their design. Alcimus, therefore, finding

his forces not sufficiently strong to contend with those of Judas, repaired to the Syrian court with fresh accusations and complaints, and procured the assistance of a numerous army, which was commanded by Nicanor. This general thought proper to use stratagem in preference to force, and requested an interview with Judas, who easily discovered his perfidious intentions, and betook himself to flight. This wise precaution so highly incensed Nicanor, that he uttered imprecations against the whole nation, and even blasphemed God himself. Nicanor commenced his march towards the land of Samaria, in order to attack Judas, who had retired thither with 3,000 men. The Jews, however, fell upon the Assyrians with irresistible fury, and, having killed the general, left not a single man alive to carry the news to Antioch.

During the peaceful interval which succeeded this victory, Judas resolved to procure an alliance with the Romans, who readily accepted the proposal; and a decree was engraven on copper, importing that the Jews were acknowledged as friends and allies of Rome, and that both nations should cheerfully aid and succour each other upon all occasions. But whilst this alliance was forming at Rome, Demetrius sent the flower of his army, under the command of Bacchides and Alcimus, who attacked Judas in the neighbourhood of Eleasa. The Jewish chief being basely deserted by a great number of his ungrateful countrymen, fell, covered with wounds, on a heap of his enemies.

Judas was succeeded in the command of the army by his brother Jonathan, who found himself in more favourable circumstances, which he knew how to turn to his advantage. Bacchides being informed that Jonathan had collected a great force in the desert, marched against him and defeated him. He then fortified and garrisoned all such places as might keep the Jews in awe, and shut up the children of the principal inhabitants as hostages in the fortress on Mount Acra. But the fury of Jonathan's enemies added to the number of his partisans; and, trying once more the fate of arms, he was victorious. The Jewish general immediately offered to Bacchides some acceptable overtures of peace. Jonathan became deputy-governor of Judea; and his government was nearly similar to that of the Israelitish judges.

Whilst the Jews began to revive under the administration of their pious general, the troubles in Syria gave them an opportunity of wholly recovering their

161

B.C.

160

B.C.

153

B.C.

liberty. Demetrius, who had so repeatedly been convinced of their constancy and heroism, dreading that they would espouse the cause of his competitor, Alexander Balas, a son of Antiochus Epiphanes, sent to Jonathan a letter, in which he declared him his friend and ally, and empowered him to levy forces, and to liberate the hostages in the fortress of Acra. Alexander, in order to outbid Demetrius, conferred on Jonathan the office of high-priesthood, and sent him some magnificent presents.

150

B.C.

When the former ascended the throne of Syria, after killing Demetrius in battle, he entertained the warmest sentiments of gratitude towards the Jewish general, whom he created high-priest of the Jews. About this time also, Ptolemy VI. Philometor, the father-in-law of Alexander, entrusted many of the Jews with the most important offices in his kingdom.

148

B.C.

A revolt of the Syrians, in favour of Demetrius the younger, induced Apollonius, governor of Coele-Syria and Palestine, to assemble a powerful army against Jonathan. The latter, however, defeated the troops of Apollonius at Azotus; and, in return for this gallant exploit, Alexander sent him a rich present, with the grant of the territory of Ekron. Soon after Demetrius, by the assistance of Philometor, gained the throne of Syria, and caused Alexander to be assassinated. He showed no ill will to Jonathan for his defeat at Azotus; but, on the contrary, relieved Judea from the payment of tribute. But as soon as Tryphon had placed Antiochus, the son of Alexander, on the

144

B.C.

throne in place of Demetrius, he prevailed on Jonathan, who had now governed the Jewish state with equal prudence and success nearly seventeen years, to enter the city of Ptolemais without any followers, under the pretence of making him a present of it, and here he was inhumanly murdered. In this emergency the Jews promoted Simon, the only surviving son of Mattathias, to the high-priesthood, and conferred on him the command of their troops.

Demetrius, as soon as he regained the throne, constituted Simon sovereign prince of the Jewish nation, and released the land entirely from foreign dominion. The Sanhedrim also conferred on him the title of prince and high-priest of the Jews. The fortress of Acra surrendered, and was de-



ed. Antiochus Sidetes, who had assumed the govern-  
 of Syria when his brother Demetrius was taken prisoner  
 king of Parthia, confirmed to the Jewish  
 all his dignities, revenue, and authority, and 140  
 him to coin money for the use of the Jews. B.C.

since, however, insisted that Simon should surrender  
 Syrians several important places in Palestine, which  
 wish pontiff refused to give up. In consequence of  
 fusil, he sent Cendebeus with a numerous 139  
 to Palestine. Simon, who was grown old, B.C.  
 ted to his sons, John and Judas, the im-

charge of leading the Jewish troops against the  
 The Syrians were finally routed with a great  
 er; and the valiant brothers returned victorious to  
 sm.

it three years after this exploit, Ptolemy, the son-in-  
 the high priest, invited Simon, with his two sons,  
 and Mattathias, to a sumptuous entertainment at  
 , and caused them to be assassinated. John, surnamed  
 us, was also invited, but happily escaped the snare.  
 us advanced with all possible haste towards Jerusalem,  
 he murderer arrived as soon as he, and demanded ad-  
 e at the same time. The citizens, however, readily  
 d Hyrcanus, and invested him with his father's  
 s.

Syrians being informed of the death of Simon, entered  
 with a powerful army, and laying close siege to Jeru-  
 reduced it to a dreadful state by famine. Antiochus  
 ed to grant the Jews a peace, on condition that their  
 ould be delivered up, their city wall demolished, and  
 n tribute paid for the towns which they held out of

On the death of Antiochus, Hyrcanus 130  
 a complete deliverance for his nation from B.C.  
 pression of Syria, to which the Jews from

ae never paid any homage. He even subjected several  
 n Arabia and Phœnicia; and turning his victorious  
 gainst the Samaritans, he took from them Shechem  
 rizzim, and destroyed the temple built by Sanballat,  
 the idolatrous altars. Under his government, religion  
 established in its ancient purity. With respect to the  
 ceremonies, he gave an example of unremitting as-

He enriched the temple, and strengthened it with

ortifications. He carefully cultivated an alliance with the Romans, and left his states in a flourishing condition and his people prosperous and happy.

On his death, his son Aristobulus succeeded to his father's dignities. This pontiff put to death his brother Antigonus, and his mother, who claimed a right to the sovereignty, and assumed the royal diadem, which

106

B.C.

had not been worn by any of his predecessors. He died after a short and infamous reign, during which he added Ituræa, a district to the north-east of Samaria, afterwards called Auranitis, to the Jewish dominions; and left three brothers, by one of whom, named Alexander Jannæus, he

98

B.C.

was succeeded. This prince led his troops against Ptolemais, but the city was succoured, and he was totally defeated by Ptolemy VIII. Lathyrus of Egypt, who was then reigning at Cyprus. By the assistance of Cleopatra, the mother of Lathyrus, he prevented that monarch from taking Judea, and afterwards captured Gadara and Gaza, the inhabitants of which he abandoned to the fury of his troops, and reduced the city to a heap of ruins. He also totally subdued the remnants of the Philistines, and

95

B.C.

compelled them to become Jews. After his return from this expedition, he was treated in the most contemptuous manner by the Pharisees, who pelted him whilst he was officiating at the great altar on the feast of tabernacles. This riotous assembly, however, was soon dispersed by the soldiers. Alexander effectually crushed two rebellions, which had been excited by the Pharisees, who hated him for the opposition shown to their peculiar views and tenets by himself and his father; and by his victories he became an object of terror to surrounding nations. His unremitting debaucheries, however, hastened his death, and he bequeathed the government of the state to his wife Alexandra, and after her decease, to either of her sons she might think fit.

Hyrcanus II., the eldest son, who, it should be said, was a Pharisee, was deemed a proper successor to his father in the pontificate, because he was less likely to interfere with the regal authority than his younger brother Aristobulus, who was of a more enterprising disposition. The queen, however, was equally alarmed and vexed by the untractable Pharisees, who grew insolent upon her submissions,

78

B.C.

and compelled her to grant the most exorbitant demands. Alexandra being ill of a dangerous sickness, the younger brother made an effort for the succession ; and though the queen appointed Hyrcanus her successor, she was no sooner dead than Aristobulus assumed the royal title and state, and, notwithstanding the endeavours of the Pharisees, obliged Hyrcanus to resign his dignities, and to live in a private manner. 69  
B.C.

Antipater, an Idumean, who had been brought up at the court of Alexander Jannæus, and was a friend of Hyrcanus II., joined the discontented Pharisees, and procured the assistance of Aretas, king of Arabia, who defeated the troops of Aristobulus, and proceeding to Jerusalem, compelled that prince to take shelter in the precinct of the temple. In this emergency, Aristobulus applied for succour to the Romans, who obliged Aretas to withdraw his troops from Judea ; and Pompey, who was then at Damascus, ordered Hyrcanus and Aristobulus to appear in person and plead their cause before him. They obeyed the summons ; and the Roman general having heard and duly considered the pretensions of each party, dismissed them with an assurance that he would visit Judea, and there determine the controversy. 65  
B.C.

This declaration was so unsatisfactory to the younger brother, that he departed in disgust to Judea, whither Pompey followed him at the head of his troops. Aristobulus was obliged to deliver all his fortresses into the hands of the Romans ; and upon the Jews refusing to pay a stipulated sum of money, the forces of Pompey marched against Jerusalem, and were admitted into the city by the faction of Hyrcanus. The supporters of Aristobulus were besieged in the temple, which was taken by assault ; and on this occasion 12,000 persons perished by the arms of the Romans, besides many others who died by their own hands. The priests, however, continued to offer up their usual sacrifices and devotions, and quietly suffered themselves to be massacred at the altar. Hyrcanus was restored to the pontificate, but deprived of the royal diadem, and made tributary to the Romans, being annexed to the proconsulship of Syria ; and Pompey, having thus subdued the Jewish nation, returned to Rome with Aristobulus and his four children as captives to adorn his triumph. 63  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Rising of the Jews under Mattathias.....	B.C. 168	Murder of Simon and his sons at Jericho ...	B.C. 135
Death of Mattathias—Judas Maccabeus appointed leader of the Jews .....	„ 166	Subjugation of the Jews by Antiochus Sidetes ..	„ 133
Temple repaired by Judas Maccabeus .....	„ 165	Death of Antiochus—John Hyrcanus declares independence of Judea .....	„ 128
First treaty between the Romans and the Jews, and death of Judas Maccabeus .....	„ 160	Death of John Hyrcanus Title of king assumed by Aristobulus I.....	„ 106
Defeat of Bacchides by Jonathan .....	„ 158	Alexander Jannæus defeated before Ptolemais by Ptolemy Lathyrus .....	„ 104
Claim of Syria to Judea withdrawn .....	„ 156	Commencement of six years' civil war in Judea .....	„ 92
Jonathan made high priest of the Jews by Alexander of Syria ...	„ 153	Death of Alexander Jannæus .....	„ 78
Tryphon procures assassination of Jonathan..	„ 144	Death of Alexandra—Accession and Dethronement of Hyrcanus II.—Accession of Aristobulus II.....	„ 69
Destruction of fortress on Mount Acra.....	„ 142	Capture of Jerusalem by Pompey, and restoration of Hyrcanus II...	„ 63
Hereditary power vested in Simon's family.....	„ 141		
Defeat of Cendebeus by the brothers Judas and John .....	„ 139		

## ASMONÆAN PRINCES.

Judas Maccabeus .....	B.C. 163	Alexander Jannæus.....	B.C. 105
Jonathan .....	„ 160	Alexandra .....	„ 78
Simon .....	„ 143	Hyrcanus II.....	„ 69
John Hyrcanus I.....	„ 136	Aristobulus II.....	„ 69
Aristobulus I. ....	„ 106	Hyrcanus II. (restored)	„ 63

## 11. JUDEA UNDER THE ROMAN PROTECTION.

63 B.C. to 7 A.D.

Hyrcanus relapsed into his former indolence, and left the care of his affairs to Antipater. Alexander, son of  
**57** Aristobulus, having escaped from Rome, raised a  
 B.C. powerful army in Judea, but was defeated by the Romans. Gabinius, the Roman proconsul of Syria, placed the administration of the civil power in the hands of the Great

Sanhedrim, or Jewish Senate, divided the province into five districts, and established in each a separate court of judicature; and the Jews, who had been hitherto governed by their own monarchical pontiffs, fell under the subjection of a race of tyrants. Crassus succeeded Gabinus in the proconsulship of Syria, and on his way to Parthia plundered the temple of all its treasure and sacred vessels. Julius Cæsar having become master of Rome, sent Aristobulus into Palestine to incite the Jews to take up arms against Pompey; but some of Pompey's partisans contrived to poison him. His son Alexander was seized, and brought before the tribunal of Metellus Scipio at Antioch, where he was immediately condemned to be beheaded.

54

B.C.

49

B.C.

Antipater assisted Cæsar in the conquest of Egypt, for which he was presented with the freedom of Rome, and made procurator of Judea. Antigonus, the son of Aristobulus, represented to the dictator the misfortunes which his family had suffered, and petitioned for the restoration of his father's principality; but Antipater defended his own cause and that of Hyrcanus with such forcible eloquence, that Antigonus was repulsed as a factious and turbulent person.

Judea being divided into districts, Antipater bestowed the government of Jerusalem on his eldest son, Phasaël, and made Herod, his second son, afterwards known as Herod the Great, governor of Galilee. The latter, however, having extirpated some banditti, the people considered this act as highly culpable, and indicative of future tyranny. Herod was therefore summoned before Hyrcanus and the Sanhedrim; and on his appearing clothed in purple and attended by a numerous retinue, he was arraigned by Sameas for his former crime as well as for his present audacity, in attempting to intimidate his judges, instead of exculpating himself from the charges preferred against him.

About this time, a party was formed against Antipater and his family, at the head of which was one Malichus, who had gained the confidence of Hyrcanus, the high-priest, and who caused Antipater to be poisoned. Malichus, however, was soon after assassinated by the order of Herod, who subsequently married Mariamne, the granddaughter of Hyrcanus, and daughter of his only child Alexandra and her cousin Alexander, the eldest

44

B.C.

42

B.C.

son of Aristobulus II. After this Herod openly assumed the headship of the Asmonean family, though his wife's brother Aristobulus and her uncle Antigonus were still alive. On the arrival of Marc Antony in Bithynia, the Jews sent several embassies to prefer complaints against Phasaël and Herod, as having engrossed the whole administration of Judea, and left Hyrcanus only the empty name of a prince; but Antony, who soon became a warm supporter of the interests of Herod, refused to listen to these complaints, and created the two brothers tetrarchs of Judea.

Antigonus, the son of Aristobulus II., unable to obtain redress from the Romans, persuaded a great number of  
**40** discontented Jews to enlist under his banner, and engaged  
 B.C. Pacorus, king of Parthia, to assist him in conquering Judea, and in deposing Hyrcanus. After some severe engagements, Phasaël and Hyrcanus, relying on the pretended friendship of the general of the Parthians, were thrown into close confinement. The ears of the high priest were cut off; and Phasaël, in the extremity of despair, committed suicide.

Herod contrived to make his escape; and having placed his family and treasures in the fortress of Massada, he sought the assistance of Malchus, king of Arabia. But Malchus ordering him to quit his territories, Herod was compelled to apply to the Romans, who appointed him to fill the Jewish throne, and declared Antigonus an enemy to Rome. He then returned into Judea with powerful assistance, released

**38** his family, who were reduced in Massada to the utmost extremity, and in his turn besieged Antigonus  
 B.C. in Jerusalem. The success of the siege was retarded by various obstacles, and he found himself obliged to put his forces into winter quarters.

Early in the spring, Herod resumed the siege of Jerusalem, which, after defying the united efforts of Herod and  
**37** the Roman general Socius for six months, was taken  
 B.C. by assault. Antigonus was sent in chains to Marc Antony at Antioch, and condemned to death at the earnest solicitations of Herod.

In order to replenish his treasury, which his auxiliaries had exhausted, Herod caused all the gold, silver, and other valuables found in the metropolis, to be seized and deposited in his own palace. Being greatly disturbed by domestic contentions, he was compelled, though much against his inclina-

tion, to invest Aristobulus, the brother of Mariamne, with the pontifical dignity. At the ensuing feast of tabernacles, the new high priest, who was only seventeen years of age, officiated in his sacred capacity with such extraordinary gracefulness and majesty, that the people, reflecting on the merit of his ancestors, could not forbear expressing their admiration. This circumstance excited the jealousy of Herod, who hired some base wretches to put a period to the life of Aristobulus, by holding him under water in a bath, to which he was invited after the solemnity.

On the defeat of his patron Marc Antony at Actium, Herod resolved to make his peace with the conqueror. Before setting out, however, on this business, he caused 30  
Hyrcanus, the venerable pontiff, who had returned B.C.  
from his captivity in Babylon, to be beheaded. He then sent his queen and her mother Alexandra into the fortress of Massada, under the care of his treasurer, with orders to put these princesses to death on the first intelligence of his ill success. Having taken these precautions, he sailed to Rhodes, and obtained an audience of Octavian, whom he addressed in a speech so well composed and appropriate, that Octavian permitted him to wear the diadem in his presence, and conferred on him several other marks of peculiar esteem.

Elated with his success, Herod made some noble presents to Octavian and his favourites, and returned to his metropolis highly pleased. His happiness, however, was considerably damped, by the reception which he met with from his beloved consort and her exasperated mother, who had discovered the fatal orders that he had left with the governors of Massada. Mariamne's affection became totally alienated from her husband; and through the suggestions of Salome, 29  
Herod's sister, she was tried, condemned, and put to B.C.  
death for a crime to which her heart was an entire stranger. This cruel act, however, oppressed Herod with such indescribable remorse, that his life became a burthen, and in the midst of his highest festivity he would call on the name of Mariamne. Alexandra was also put to death soon after her injured daughter. Twelve years after perpetrating these acts of tyranny, Herod commenced the rebuilding of the temple, of which mention is made so frequently in the New Testament. 17  
B.C.

Mariamne had left Herod two sons, Alexander and Aristobulus.

bulus, whom the father caused to be brought up at Rome, and who, after finishing their education, were married, the former to Glaphyra, the daughter of Archelaus, king of Capadocia; and the latter to Berenice, the daughter of Salome. The love and admiration, however, which the people expressed for these accomplished youths, was most objectionable to Salome; and in consequence of her repeated accusations and malicious hints, Herod was led to heap great favours on Antipater, another of his sons by his wife Doris, who had been hitherto educated privately. This conduct of the king roused the resentment of the other brothers; and having uttered some indiscreet speeches against their father, they were accused of

8 high treason and conspiracy against their father's life,  
B.C. and after undergoing a trial, in which Herod was the accuser, were at last put to death.

Soon after this tragical event, Herod commanded the Jewish nation to take an oath of allegiance to himself and Octavian, who had now become emperor of Rome, and was styled Augustus; but this being contrary to the law of Moses, great numbers opposed the edict, and among the rest the wife of Pheroras, the brother of Herod. Pheroras retired to his tetrarchy in disgust; and Antipater, the son of the king, procuring an appointment at Rome, they entered into a conspiracy for the destruction of Herod. On the death

5 of Pheroras, the treason was completely unravelled,  
B.C. and Herod had the mortification to find a real and implacable enemy in that son for whom he had put to death two virtuous youths.

In the reign of Herod, just four years before the period at which the Christian era has been assumed to commence, was born Jesus Christ, or the Messiah, who was appointed to be the Saviour of mankind by dying for their sins. The appearance of a miraculous star induced the Eastern Magi to hasten to the Jewish metropolis in quest of the new-born king; and the Grand Sanhedrim directed them to Bethlehem, on the authority of the ancient prophets. When Herod was informed of their errand, he began to consider the new-born Messiah as a dangerous rival, and formed a diabolical design for his destruction, which was, however, frustrated by the interposition of Divine Providence.

Antipater having been found guilty of conspiring against his father, was put to death. Herod was attacked by a loath-



some and painful disease, and finding his end approaching, he ordered the chief men of the nation to be assembled at Jericho, and shut up in the hippodrome, and obliged Salome to promise that she would cause them all to be massacred as soon as the breath quitted his body. This was intended by the tyrant as an expedient to prevent their rejoicing at his decease. As soon, however, as Herod was dead, the prisoners in the circus were allowed to depart to their respective habitations.

He appointed his son Archelaus, by Malthace, a woman of Samaria, his successor, but required that the appointment should be confirmed by Cæsar. In consequence of this, Archelaus was obliged to visit Rome. He presented to Cæsar a memorial, in which he exhibited his title to the regal dignity, and the particulars of Herod's last will. Herod Antipas, his brother, who had been appointed to the government by Herod's *first* will, and to whom the tetrarchy of Galilee and Peræa had been assigned by his father, was persuaded by the subtle Salome to oppose Archelaus. A deputation was also sent from Judea to express an abhorrence of the Herodian family, and to request an abolition of the monarchical government. Augustus, however, bestowed one half of the kingdom upon Archelaus, under the title of ethnarch, or governor of a nation, and promised to invest him with the insignia of royalty as soon as he rendered himself worthy of such distinction. The remainder was divided between Herod's son Philip, whose mother was Cleopatra of Egypt, and Herod Antipas, in accordance with Herod's will.

Archelaus had no sooner returned into Judea, than he began to exhibit tokens of his arbitrary and vindictive temper, and abandoned himself to tyranny and luxury. On the representation of the public sufferings, Augustus, <sup>7</sup> having heard both the accusers and the accused, banished the ungrateful ethnarch to the city of Vienne <sup>A.D.</sup> in Dauphiny, and caused Judea to be taxed as a province of the Roman empire.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Temple at Jerusalem	Murder of Aristobulus II.
plundered by Crassus B.C. 54	by friends of Pompey B.C. 49

Marriage of Herod and Mariamne.....	B.C. 42	Execution of Herod's sons, Alexander and Aristobulus .....	B.C. 8
Parthians invade Judea and restore Antigonus to the throne .....	„ 40	Execution of Herod's son Antipater .....	„ 5
Siege and capture of Jerusalem by Herod and Sosios .....	„ 37	Birth of our Saviour .....	„ 4
Commencement of reign of Herod .....	„ 37	Murder of the Innocents, and death of Herod.....	„ 4
Execution of Mariamne..	„ 29	Archelaus appointed ethnarch of Judea.....	„ 4
Rebuilding of the Temple commenced .....	„ 17	Banishment of Archelaus —Judea made a Roman province.....	A.D. 7

## 12. JUDEA AS A ROMAN PROVINCE.

7 A.D. TO 135 A.D.

Pontius Pilate, soon after he was appointed procurator of Judea, introduced into Jerusalem the Roman standards, which the Jews considered as the vilest abominations. 20 A.D. The people, therefore, prostrated themselves five days and five nights at the gate of his palace, and besought him to remove those objects of scandal. Pilate commanded the soldiers to kill such as refused to depart; but the Jews meekly offered their necks to the assassins. This passive constancy induced Pilate to remove the Roman eagles which were objects of such abhorrence to the Jews.

At this time, Jesus Christ received the rite of baptism from his pious harbinger, John the Baptist, and the Holy Ghost visibly descended on him in the form of a dove, 30 A.D. whilst a voice from Heaven was heard, saying, "This is my beloved Son, in whom I am well pleased." He then commenced his public ministry, and gave evident proofs of his divinity by changing water into wine at a marriage festival in Cana of Galilee. Having called some obscure and illiterate men to be his disciples, he travelled about the country preaching the glad tidings of salvation, healing all manner of diseases, illustrating the laws of his Heavenly Father, raising up the dead, casting out devils, giving speech to the dumb, sight to the blind, hearing to the deaf, and activity to the lame; till at length he submitted to the ignominious death of the cross, and meekly endured the heavy chastisement of divine justice, for the ransom of a rebellious but beloved world.

On the third day after his crucifixion, his disciples, whose faith had proved unequal to the severe trial of beholding their *king* expire upon the cross, were transported with joy at the happy news of his resurrection. He afterwards showed himself openly to them, and ordered them to go and preach his doctrine throughout the whole earth. In an enlightened age, twelve rude and ignorant men taught and established a religion, which is founded on mysteries, which is hostile to pleasure, and which is an enemy to pomp and to everything that flatters the pride of man. Notwithstanding the opposition of the learned, and the prejudice of sovereigns, it overspread the whole earth, and its success is alone sufficient to establish the truth of its divine origin.

Herod Antipas, who had Galilee and Peræa, and was the prince who married his brother Philip's divorced wife, added to his infamy by beheading John the Baptist, and was banished by Caligula to Lyon, after a reign of forty-three years. His brother Philip had died previously, and soon after the decease of Tiberius, Agrippa, grandson of Herod the Great, who had been thrown into prison and loaded with chains by order of the emperor, was invested with the tetrarchy of his deceased uncle Philip, with the title of king. The dominions of Herod Antipas were also given to him when that treacherous and wily king was sent into banishment; and shortly after he was put into possession of all the territories which had owned the sway of Herod the Great. Claudius indulged him with some important privileges, entered into a solemn alliance with him, and issued several edicts highly beneficial to the Jewish nation. Agrippa being at Cæsarea, addressed an elegant speech to the deputies of Tyre and Sidon, who exclaimed that it was the voice of a god, and not of a man; and on his encouraging this impious adulation, he was smitten with a dreadful disease, of which he soon after died.

On the death of Agrippa, Judea was again converted into a province of the empire, and Cuspius Fadus was nominated to the government. His son, Herod Agrippa II., to whom the principality of Chalcis, in Syria, had been given on the death of his uncle Herod, the son of Aristobulus, obtained the superintendency of the temple and sacred treasury, together with the authority of appointing the high-priest. At length, Judea was committed

33

A.D.

39

A.D.

32

A.D.

44

A.D.

to the care of a governor called Claudius Felix, under whom the Jewish affairs became extremely bad, and who exerted his cruelty on all persons indiscriminately, whom his avarice or his resentment had marked out for destruction.

52

A.D.

He was succeeded by Porcius Festus, who perceived that even the priests had commenced a civil war among themselves, and who was, therefore, necessitated to begin his government with the utmost severity, that he might suppress the disorders which now filled the city, the country, and sometimes the temple, with blood.

62

A.D.

On the death of Festus, Albinus was appointed governor; but he was recalled by Nero, and Gessius Florus nominated his successor. This abandoned wretch, whose chief delight consisted in rapine, murder, and oppression, used his utmost exertions to provoke the nation to open rebellion. The people detested Florus and the Romans so much that, wherever the Jews were superior in numbers, none of them were spared. The flames of intestine war began to rage with irresistible fury.

66

A.D.

Twenty thousand Jews were massacred in Cæsarea, two thousand at Ptolemais, fifty thousand at Alexandria, and three or four thousand in one day at Jerusalem, whilst the Jews on their part spared neither Syrians nor Romans, but retaliated their cruelties upon them.

The Jews having vanquished Cestius Gallus, the Syrian governor, appointed Flavius Josephus, a Jewish priest of considerable rank, over the two Galilees; left the care

67

A.D.

of the metropolis to Ananus the high-priest; and entrusted the government of Idumea to Eleazar, the chief of the Zealots. Nero being informed of these preparations, commanded Vespasian to march into Judea. Accordingly, that general advanced into the kingdom, took possession of the strong places, and drove into the centre of the country those whom religious zeal, or the fear of being punished for their barbarities, prevented from surrendering themselves to the Romans.

While those members of the Jewish nation who clearly foresaw the consequences of the impending destruction, endeavoured to elude the danger by a timely submission to the Romans, the opposite and more numerous party rejected all pacific measures, and breathed

69

A.D.

out nothing but slaughter, rapine, and devastation. These abandoned wretches, under the pretence of religion, began to exercise their wanton cruelty in plundering and assassinating all who presumed to oppose them in the neighbourhood of Jerusalem. They entered the capital with Eleazar at their head, but were repulsed by Ananus the high-priest. At length, however, they called in the assistance of the Idumeans, who found means to introduce themselves into the temple. Twelve thousand individuals of noble extraction were murdered by the most cruel methods; and Jerusalem was filled with anguish and distress.

In the meantime, Vespasian remained at Cæsarea, an idle spectator of the melancholy state of the revolted province, and well aware that the power of the Jews declined daily, in consequence of their intestine broils and massacres. The event justified his unusual indolence, and fully accomplished the awful predictions which had been frequently pronounced against the Jewish nation. The Zealots, having triumphed over the lives and property of their opponents, turned their murderous weapons against each other. The dissensions continued to increase, and involved the threatened city in new and accumulated calamities.

Such was the deplorable condition of Jerusalem when Vespasian, who had been invested with the imperial purple, left his son Titus to terminate the war. Titus having received some powerful reinforcements, marched against the metropolis with intent to besiege it. He began, however, by offering proposals of peace, which the Zealots, though they agreed not among themselves, refused to accept. John and Simon, the chiefs of the two factions in the city, carried on war against each other with fury and obstinacy, but united in repelling the Romans. Titus, therefore, commenced the siege with great fury. A famine, which for some time afflicted the city, was followed by a pestilence. Nothing was to be seen in Jerusalem but putrescent bodies, emaciated invalids, and objects of the deepest distress. Even those who escaped to the Roman camp, were murdered by the soldiers, on a supposition that they had swallowed great quantities of gold. The inhumanity of the faction within rendered the agonies and dying groans of their brethren the subject of their diabolical mirth, and exercised on the lifeless bodies every species of wanton barbarity. An unhappy

70

A.D.

mother was obliged by the want of food to kill and eat her own child.

Notwithstanding the obstinate resistance of the Jews, the Romans, by repeated assaults, in which machines and fire were employed with equal success, established themselves in the city, or rather on heaps of ruins. The desolation of Jerusalem, on being abandoned to the flames, may be easily conceived. In vain Titus endeavoured to preserve the temple from the fury of the soldiers : not a stone of it was left upon another. He could preserve only the sacred vessels and the instruments of sacrifice. According to the most moderate computation, the number of slain and prisoners in the course of this fatal war with Rome, amounted to one million four hundred and sixty-two thousand, of whom the greatest part were strangers, invited from foreign countries, to assist their brethren of Judea in defending their laws, liberty, and religion. John and Simon, the two chiefs of the rebels, were taken and brought to Titus, who commanded them to be reserved for his triumph.

Vespasian ordered the Jewish lands to be sold for his own use ; and commanded every Jew to pay annually half a shekel into the imperial treasury. The spirit of the Jewish nation was utterly broken by the catastrophe for a time. Numbers of the Jews quitted Judea and established themselves in Cyprus, Cyrene, and Egypt, in which parts, in the reign of Trajan, they broke out once more into a rebellion, massacring upwards of 500,000 Greeks and Romans. The rebellion was put down with great severity by Trajan, and it is computed that 600,000 Jews were killed in Egypt and Cyrene.

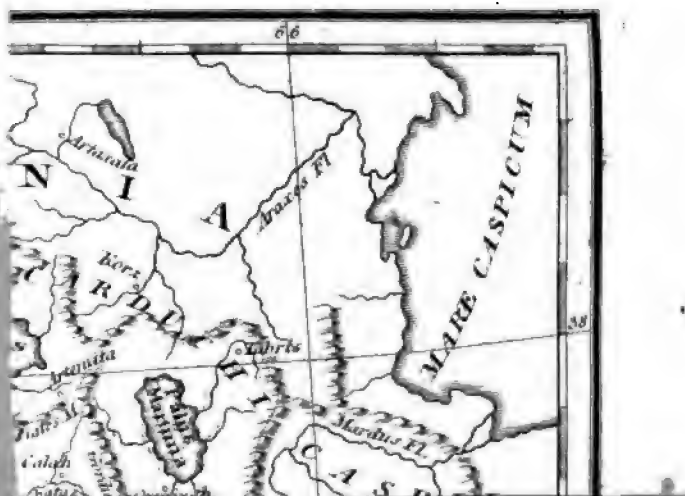
The last attempt of the Jews to recover their own country was the rebellion in the reign of Hadrian, under Akiba and

131


A.D.

Bar-Cochebas, or the "Son of the Star," who occupied Jerusalem, and assumed the title of king.

The revolt was ultimately put down by Julius Severus, and in it more than 580,000 Jews are said to have perished by sword, fire, and famine, while thousands were sold into slavery. When the revolt was suppressed, Hadrian established a Roman colony at Jerusalem, which was rebuilt under the name of *Ælia Capitolina*, and a temple to Jupiter was built on the site of the temple on Mount Moriah. The Jews were then banished by an imperial edict from their



As known to the ancients which lay to the  
 Mediterranean Sea, it is better before entering on their history  
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native land, and since then they have been scattered among all nations.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Archelaus, ethnarch of Judea; Herod Antipas, tetrarch of Galilee; Philip, tetrarch of Iturea.....	B.C.	4	the Great, with the title of king .....	A.D.	41
Banishment of Archelaus to Vienne; Judea placed under Roman procurators .....	A.D.	7	Death of Herod Agrippa I. Judea again placed under Roman procurators .....		44
Death of Philip, tetrarch of Iturea.....		32	Herod Agrippa II., tetrarch of Peræa and Abilene .....		50
Herod Agrippa I. made tetrarch of Iturea ...		37	Capture and destruction of Jerusalem by Titus .....		70
Banishment of Herod Antipas to Lyon .....		39	Revolt of the Jews in Egypt, Cyrene, &c. ....		115
Herod Agrippa I. made tetrarch of Galilee ...		39	Final revolt of the Jews under Akiba and Bar-Cochebas .....		131
Herod Agrippa I. made tetrarch of Judea and ruler over all the territory held by Herod			Rebuilding of Jerusalem as Ælia Capitolina by Hadrian, and the dispersion of the Jews among all nations.....		133

## CHAPTER V.

## THE CHALDEAN OR OLD BABYLONIAN EMPIRE.

2234 B.C. to 1518 B.C.

## I. GEOGRAPHY OF THE ANCIENT EMPIRES.—NIMBOD.—THE OLD KINGS OF CHALDEA.

In speaking of the great empires of olden time that were successively supreme in south-western Asia, and may be considered as having possessed the mastery of the world itself as far as the portion of it that was known in early days was concerned, or at all events supremacy over that part of the world as known to the ancients which lay to the east of the Mediterranean Sea, it is better before entering on their history to state first what they were, and secondly, to attempt to define their position and extent as far as they can be determined.

The four ancient Asiatic empires were : 1. the Chaldean or Old Babylonian empire ; 2. the Assyrian empire ; 3. the Babylonian empire ; and 4. the Medo-Persian empire. The third is considered to be a revival or re-establishment of the first, but it is better to look on them as distinct and separate empires for the sake of clearness on the one hand and preserving the relative succession of the great powers that ruled the world in turn on the other.

In the mountains in the south and west of Armenia rise the head streams of two great rivers, the Tigris and the Euphrates. The former flows almost in a direct course in a south-easterly direction from its source to its mouth in the Persian Gulf ; the latter takes a semi-circular sweep to the westward, and skirting Syria and the north-eastern corner of Arabia, approaches within about twenty-five miles of the Tigris, near the 33rd parallel of north latitude, then flows first due south, and then due west, and enters the Tigris near the modern Kornah, the main stream between the confluence of the rivers and the point of afflux of their mingled waters into the Persian Gulf, being called in the present day the *Shat-el-Arab*. Taking the direction of the 34th parallel of north latitude as a rough mark of division, the country watered by the lower course of these rivers lying between Arabia and Persia to the south of this line, was Chaldea or Babylonia, while the northern part having Armenia on the north, Syria on the east, and Media on the west, was Assyria. That part of Assyria that lay between the Euphrates and the Tigris was called Mesopotamia, or "the country between the rivers." Following the same rough line of demarcation eastward, Media lay to the east of Assyria *north* of this line, and Persia east of Chaldea or Babylonia to the *south* of it. To the west of the upper course of the Euphrates, between Asia Minor and Arabia Deserta, lay Syria, of which the Holy Land and Phœnicia, stretching along the seaboard of the Mediterranean Sea, formed its south-western corner. The country called Elam, the territory of the Elamites, formed a part of what was subsequently called Susiana and Persia, and lay to the east of the Tigris and south of the Zagros mountains ; it was watered by the Choaspes.

It was in the flat alluvial plain of Chaldea, which was enriched by artificial irrigation from the waters of the great rivers that traversed it, that the first monarchy known in the

world was founded. In all probability the country was first settled by Asshur, the son of Shem. Then came Nimrod, the son of Cush, and grandson of Ham, with his followers and dependents, and compelled the weaker Asshur to relinquish the land to him and migrate northward, where he founded Nineveh, Rehoboth, and Calah, the germs of the Assyrian monarchy and future kingdom of Assyria, whose name differs but slightly from that of its founder. Having got rid of the first proprietors of the soil, Nimrod, the hunter, proceeded to establish a kingdom, which, he hoped, might ultimately include within its limits every part of the world with which he was acquainted, and assert its mastery over all men.

2218  
B.C.

As a historian, Manetho, was found for Egypt, so in later times, in the reign of Antiochus II., a priest of Bel at Babylon, Berosus by name, was prompted to commit to paper all that he knew and could ascertain from tradition about the early history of its kings. From the fragments that remain to us a little has been gleaned that is trustworthy, and is confirmed by the monuments and inscriptions of the country, but the greater part, like most of Manetho's, is clearly fabulous, and indicates an attempt to lend importance to the country by pretending that it had existed nearly 35,000 years before the time at which sacred history indicates the settlement of the country, and giving long lists of mythical kings who had reigned during this period.

Scarcely was Nimrod seated on the throne, or rather established in the country that he had taken by force, when he began to build Babel, Erech, Accad, and Calneh. This was followed probably by the foundation of other cities, among which was Ur, Abraham's native place, and at last, in the pride of his heart, he began to build, at Babel, the stronghold which was to form the centre of his universal monarchy, whose progress was stopped long ere it neared completion by the confusion of the builders' speech as told in Holy Writ.

Little remains to be said of the history of ancient Chaldea, or the old Babylonian empire, beyond this. The successors of Nimrod, whose name and fame still lives in the traditions of the Arabs, have left few traces of their existence and their acts. From 2095 B.C. to 2070 B.C. a king, named Uruk or Urkham, is supposed to have reigned in Chaldea, from the discovery of his name on some of the sun-dried bricks of the

most ancient buildings. This monarch appears to have built temples to most of the Chaldean deities, and to have executed many great public works. He is thought to be identical with (Orchamus, who is represented by the Latin poet, Ovid, as the seventh in succession from the mythic Belus or Bel, who ruled in Chaldea, it is asserted by Berosus, before the Flood, and who was afterwards worshipped at Babylon and throughout the country.

The dynasty of Nimrod, who had presumptuously aimed at the universal sovereignty of the earth, was not destined to

**1976**

B.C.

last very long, for it was overturned about two centuries and a half after its establishment by a king of Elam, called Chedorlaomer in the Bible, who crossed the Tigris, and drove out the reigning king. At this time there were descendants of Shem still living peaceably in the country with those who had sprung from the followers of the conqueror Nimrod. Many of these migrated westward on the establishment of the new régime, and among these were Abraham and his family, who went from Ur to Charran, and a numerous party who did not halt till they reached the seaboard of the Mediterranean in Phœnicia, where they founded and built Sidon. Chedorlaomer, with his allies, subsequently attempted to extend his conquests westward, but was checked in his career by Abraham, who at that time had also settled in Canaan.

But although the King of Elam was foiled in carrying the boundaries of his empire as far westward as he wished, the valley of the Tigris fell under the power of himself or his immediate successors, and Assyria, the land of Asshur, became a dependency of Chaldea, though it does not appear that the whole of Mesopotamia shared its fate. About 1850 B.C., it appears from an inscription discovered not many years ago, that a temple was built at Kileh-Sherghah by Shamas-Vul, who was then acting as viceroy of Assyria for his father Ismi-Dagon. Then for more than three hundred years there are

**1520**

B.C.

no records, but about this time it is said that Chaldean was conquered by the nomad tribes of Arabia, who poured over the country like a torrent, obliterating almost every trace of the old dynasties of Nimrod and Chedorlaomer, and leaving no marks of their occupancy

**1270**

B.C.

of the country which was said by Berosus to have remained under Arab kings for two hundred and forty-

five years. This brings us to the period which witnessed the rise of the great Assyrian monarchy.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Probable settlement of Chaldea by Asshur..	B.C. 2234	Ismi-Dagon takes possession of Assyria as a viceroyalty of Chaldea, about .....	B.C. 1850
Invasion of Nimrod and establishment of his kingdom .....	„ 2218	The Arabs invade and occupy Chaldea and Assyria .....	„ 1520
Urakh or Urkham, king of Chaldea, about ...	„ 2095	Termination of Arab domination in Chaldea, about .....	„ 1270
Occupation of Chaldea by Chedorlaomer, about .....	„ 1976		

## CHAPTER VI.

## THE ASSYRIAN EMPIRE.

1273 B.C. to 625 B.C.

I. ACCOUNTS OF OLD GREEK WRITERS.—FIRST ASSYRIAN DYNASTY.—SECOND ASSYRIAN DYNASTY.

THE country called Assyria derived its name, as it has been said, from Asshur, who appears to have migrated thither when Nimrod forcibly took possession of Chaldea. Assyria Proper was bounded on the north by Armenia; on the west by the Tigris, which divided it from Mesopotamia; on the south by Chaldea and Susiana; and on the east by Media. Its principal province was Adiabene, by which the whole country was sometimes designated, and in which stood the famous city of Nineveh, the capital of the Assyrian empire. Subsequently Mesopotamia and the plains of Babylonia and Chaldea were included within the limits of Assyria, when the power of its monarchs was at its height.

The following is a summary of Assyrian history as told by the old Greek writers. One of these, Ctesias, represents Ninus as the founder of this great empire, and as a prince of the most extraordinary endowments and prowess. He conquered almost all Asia between the Tanais and the Nile, and built the city of Nineveh, the circumference of which was sixty miles.

His widow, Semiramis, determined to eclipse the glory of her husband, and founded the city of Babylon, in building which she employed two millions of labourers. She conquered Media, and invaded India with an immense army. She was, however, defeated by Stabrobates, a king of that country, who encountered her at the head of a numerous body of forces.

Semiramis was succeeded by her son Ninyas, who was a pusillanimous and voluptuous prince, and shut himself up in his palace, that his subjects might regard him as a god.

Sardanapalus was the last and most vicious of the Assyrian monarchs, and descended to such a state of weakness and folly as to assume the dress and manners of a woman. In his time the Medes, Babylonians, and Persians, assisted by the Arabians, revolted and shook off the yoke; and Sardanapalus, being besieged in Nineveh, set fire to his palace, and destroyed

**876**

B.C.

himself and all his wives; and with him ended the Assyrian empire, after it had subsisted one thousand four hundred years. Such is the account of Ctesias; but we subjoin the more reliable account gathered from the Bible and the recently discovered monumental records of the country.

The ancient capital of Assyria was Asshur, now the modern village of Kileh-Shergat, about sixty miles south of Nineveh. It was at this place that Shamas-Vul ruled as viceroy of the country in behalf of his father, Ismi-Dagon, a king

**1821**

B.C.

of ancient Babylonia, or Chaldea. Between 500 and 600 years after—that is to say, when the old Babylonian empire had been subverted by the Arabs—Assyria seems to have completely regained its independence, and to have gradually risen into power under ten monarchs. Of the first seven of these, who reigned from 1273 B.C. to 1140 B.C., the records furnish little besides the mere names, and the work done by them appears to have been restricted to building up the internal resources of the country, and rendering the condition of the country such as would enable their successors to take advantage of its wealth and prosperity to extend the limits of their territories.

Accordingly, the work of conquest was begun by Asshur-rish-ipan, the eighth in order (1140 B.C.), and continued by the ninth king, his son, Tiglath-Pileser I., who subdued Media, Armenia, and all the country

**1140**

B.C.

to the north and west as far as Cappadocia, Mesopotamia, and a great part of the country of Syria on the west bank of the Euphrates. He failed, however, in an attempt to extend his rule over Babylonia, which was recovering from the effects of the Arab invasion of 1273 B.C., and whose king, Mero-dach-iddin-akhi, was strong enough to give blow for blow, and even wage war on Tiglath-Pileser I. in his own territory. Babylonia was brought into subjection to Assyria by Sardanapalus, the sixth of the nine kings that succeeded Tiglath-Pileser I., and reigned from 1100 B.C. to about 750 B.C. This event occurred about 860 B.C.; but the Babylonians were by no means disposed to submit meekly to the conqueror, and more than once renewed the struggle for independence.

Sardanapalus, or, to use his Assyrian name, Asshur-danipal, was very different in character to the Sardanapalus of the Greek historians, although he lived at the same epoch; and these writers seem to have confused him with the last of the kings of Assyria, by whom Nineveh was destroyed. Sardanapalus transferred the seat of government from Ashur to Calah, the modern Nimrod, and spread his conquests east, north, and west in every direction, advancing to the sea-board of the Mediterranean, and compelling the cities of Phœnicia to pay him tribute. This king, however, devoted himself to the arts of peace as well as war, and built many palaces and temples at Calah and Nineveh, which were profusely ornamented by pictorial records of his achievements.

880  
B.C.

He was succeeded by his son, Shalmaneser II., who ascended the throne about 859 B.C., and reigned till about 824 B.C. This king invaded Babylonia, in consequence of an attempt made by its inhabitants to assert their independence, about 850 B.C., and was constantly engaged in wars with the kings of Syria, defeating Benhadad, and compelling his successor, Hazael, to pay him tribute. Towards the end of his reign, his son Sardanapalus attempted to seize the crown, but was defeated by his brother Shamas-Iva, who succeeded his father Shalmaneser on the throne, and reigned till about 810 B.C. This king conducted an expedition against the king of Babylon, whom he totally defeated; but little else is known of his acts and exploits. He was succeeded in his turn by his son Iva-lush III., whose wife, Sammuramit, was a princess

of Babylon, and is supposed to have been the Semiramis of the Greeks. His reign, according to Rawlinson, ended about 781 B.C.

Much confusion exists in the names and order of succession of the Assyrian monarchs, and in the dates and duration of their reigns; but soon after this time, the kings of Assyria come into immediate contact with the kings of Israel and Judah, of which we shall speak presently. In Assyria and Babylon, too, at this period, there was much internal commotion in all probability, and possibly a rebellion against the old dynasty, which must have been brought to a close, for in 747 B.C., a date which is known in history as the "era of Nabonassar," we find Nabonassar had assumed supreme power in Babylon, while Tiglath-Pileser II., who is supposed to be a usurper, and in no way connected with the old kings of Assyria, had placed himself on the throne of that country. But before proceeding afresh from this new starting-point, it is necessary to revert to Pul, king of Assyria, who marched against Palestine about 770 B.C., in the time of Menahem, king of Israel, and received from that monarch 1,000 talents of silver to spare the country and enter into alliance with him. By some writers Pul is supposed to be identical with Iva-lush, while others, because no prince of this name is mentioned in the Assyrian records, think that he was a pretender to the Assyrian crown, but had established himself so firmly in the south and west of the country, as to be able to undertake a war of conquest of Syria and the neighbouring kingdoms.

Tiglath-Pileser II., who was reigning in 747 B.C., though it is uncertain when and how he ascended the throne, fought against the Armenians, Medes, and Mesopotamians with success, and invaded Babylonia. Being summoned to the aid of Ahaz, king of Judah, who purchased his assistance by giving him all the treasure that was stored in the temple, he marched against the confederate oppressors of Judah—Pekah, king of Israel, and Rezin, king of Syria—and carried many of the Israelites away captive into Assyria. Having slain Rezin, he removed the people of Damascus also into his own kingdom, and put an end to the then existing kingdom of Syria.

The next king of Assyria was Tiglath-Pileser's son Shal-



maneser, who took Samaria, after a siege of three years, and sent all the remaining Israelites into captivity. This king's name does not appear on the monuments of the country, and he must either be identical with Sargon, who is credited by an inscription found at Khorsabad, near the site of Nineveh, with the conquest of the Israelites, or Sargon must have been a usurper who seized Shalmaneser's throne at this period. Sargon, who reigned nineteen years, dating from 721 B.C., defeated the Philistines in a great battle of Raphia (720 B.C.), and soon after compelled the king of Egypt to pay him tribute. He overran Phœnicia, and carried his arms into Cyprus to the west; while to the east he conquered Media, and there placed many of the captive Israelites.

**721**  
B.C.

The next king of Assyria was Sennacherib, the son of Sargon. This monarch made Nineveh his capital, and beautified it with many magnificent palaces and structures. It is said to be during his reign that Jonah visited Nineveh. He conquered Babylonia, and placed an Assyrian viceroy in Babylon; and, not content with rendering Hezekiah tributary to him, sent his general, Rabshakeh, against Jerusalem. That city, however, was preserved by the interposition of divine providence; and Sennacherib hastened back into his own country, where he was slain, about eighteen years after, by his sons, Adrammelech and Sharezer.

**698**  
B.C.

He was succeeded by his son Esar-haddon, who united the sceptre of Babylon to that of Nineveh, and completed the ruin of the Syrians and Jews. It was this king who sent colonists from the conquered provinces of Babylonia to inhabit Samaria, as the kingdom of Israel was subsequently called, and these colonists were the ancestors of the Samaritans of later years.

**680**  
B.C.

The reign of Esar-haddon is supposed to have lasted until 660 B.C., when he was succeeded by his son Asshur-beni-pal. This king sat on the throne for twenty years, and was occupied chiefly in defending his kingdom against the forays of the Medes and Persians, who were slowly but surely gathering strength on his eastern frontiers, and already menacing his kingdom. In the reign of his son and successor, Asshur-emid-elin, called also Sardanapalus and Saracus, the Scythians devastated Assyria (632 B.C.). Five years later, Cyaxares.

the Mede, who had entered Assyria a short time before the Scythians, and had withdrawn at their approach, marched

**627** into the country a second time, and laid siege to  
 B.C. Nineveh. The siege dragged on its weary length

for two years, and then Nabopolassar, the Assyrian king's general and viceroy of Babylon, having declared the independence of Babylonia and entered into alliance with the Median monarch, hastened to bring all the troops at his disposal against his old master. Spiritless, incompetent, and reduced to despair by the previous inaction and succeeding treachery of Nabopolassar, no means of escaping his relentless foes but suicide remained to him. So retiring

**625** into his palace with his wives and a few friends  
 B.C. who would not abandon him in his bitter agony,

he fired the building with his own hand, and perished in the flames. During the frightful conflagration that ensued, the conquerors entered the blazing city, and the empire of Assyria was brought to an end.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Assyria independent of the kings of Babylonia .....	B.C. 1273	Some of the children of Israel carried into captivity by Tiglath-Pileser II.....	B.C. 740
Commencement of victorious reign of Tiglath-Pileser I.....	„ 1120	Samaria taken after a two years' siege, by Shalmaneser (or Sargon?).....	„ 721
Tiglath-Pileser I. defeated by the king of Babylonia.....	„ 1112	Sargon defeats the Philistines at Raphia, and renders Egypt tributary to the kings of Assyria.....	„ 720
Seat of government transferred from Ashur to Calah by Sardanapalus.....	„ 880	Sennacherib's invasion of Judah. Total destruction of the Assyrian army.....	„ 698
Sardanapalus brings Babylonia into temporary subjection ...	„ 860	Assassination of Sennacherib by his sons, Adrammelech and Sharezer .....	„ 680
Shalmaneser totally defeats Hazael, king of Syria.....	„ 844	Invasion of Assyria by Cyaxares, and subsequent devastation of the country by the Scythians.....	„ 633
Invasion of Palestine by Pul, king of Assyria .....	„ 770		
New dynasty commenced in Assyria by Tiglath-Pileser II., about .....	„ 747		

Second invasion of Cy- axares. — Siege of Nineveh commenced B.C. 627 Asshur-emid-elin burns himself in his palace.	—Nineveh taken by the Medes and Baby- lonians, and the As- syrian empire brought to an end ..... B.C. 625
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## KINGS OF THE SECOND ASSYRIAN DYNASTY.

747 B.C. to 625 B.C.

\*. It has been thought unnecessary to give the kings of the first dynasty, as so much uncertainty prevails about the names, and even existence of some of them, and the dates at which they began to reign.

Tiglath-Pileser II.....	B.C. 747	Esar-haddon .....	B.C. 680
Shalmaneser (?).....	„ 730	Asshur-bani-pal II. ....	„ 660
Sargon .....	„ 721	Asshur-emid-elin .....	„ 640
Sennacherib .....	„ 702	Close of dynasty .....	„ 625

## CHAPTER VII.

## THE BABYLONIAN EMPIRE.

625 B.C. to 538 B.C.

## I. POSITION OF BABYLON.—ASSYRIAN INFLUENCE.—THE KINGS OF BABYLON.

THE great alluvial plain of Babylon was known in ancient times by the name of *Shinar*, and was called Babylon from the old city Babel, which was founded by Nimrod, and the tower which was subsequently built in the country by the same king, for reasons which have been already stated. It was also called Chaldea from the Chaldeans, who occupied the southern portion of the plain, but ultimately assumed superiority over the inhabitants of the whole district, and formed an aristocratic class, from which came the monarchs, priests, and nobles of Babylonia in later times. It lies between 30° and 35° north latitude; and is bounded on the north by Mesopotamia and Assyria Proper, on the east by Elam or Susiana and Persia, on the west by Arabia Deserta, and on the south by the Persian Gulf and part of Arabia Felix.

The richness of the soil, the general excellence of the climate, and the industry of the inhabitants rendered the country extremely fertile. Its great fertility, however, must be principally ascribed to the overflowing of the rivers Tigris

and Euphrates, which, during the months of June, July, and August, inundate the country by means of the snow melting on the mountains of Armenia. To guard against these annual floods, the inhabitants cut a great number of artificial rivers or canals, by which the waters were distributed, and an easy communication between one part and another effected.

The Chaldeans were priests, philosophers, astronomers, and soothsayers. The Babylonians, properly so called, applied themselves to the arts, and were good mathematicians, mechanics, and architects, ingenious in the casting of metals, and famous for their manufactures, particularly for their rich embroideries, magnificent carpets, and fine linen. It will be remembered that the Chaldean or Old Babylonian empire was subverted by an irruption of the Arabs in 1518 B.C., and that from this time until 1273 B.C., it remained under their dominion. At this period the Assyrian empire had become consolidated, and was beginning to extend its influence over the surrounding countries, compelling them in many instances to yield obedience and tribute to its superior power. Babylonia, however, was never entirely subjected by Assyria, and the Babylonians, crushed for a time, but never absolutely conquered, made repeated attempts at intervals to throw off the Assyrian yoke. When the domination of the Arabs had ceased, Tiglath-Nin, one of the kings of Assyria, who preceded Tiglath-Pileser I. on the throne, and who reigned at Asshur from 1270 B.C. to 1250 B.C., assumed power over Babylonia, and is said to have established an Assyrian dynasty in the country. A hundred years later (1150 B.C.), a Babylonian king, Nebuchadnezzar I., is spoken of as having made two expeditions into Assyria during the reign of Asshur-rish-ipan.

When Tiglath-Pileser I. occupied the throne of Assyria (1130 B.C.—1110 B.C.), he invaded Babylonia, and occupied it for two years, but returning to his own country at the end of this period, he was followed up by the Babylonian king, Merodach-iddin-akhi, who carried back to his capital several Assyrian idols and other tokens of victory. The struggle for supremacy between the two countries, or rather for supremacy on the part of Assyria, and for independence on the part of Babylon, continued for nearly four centuries. Asshur-banipal of Assyria invaded Babylonia in 880 B.C., and thirty years later Shalmaneser II. took advantage of a civil war between

**Merodach-sum-adin** and his brother to enter the country, and enforce payment of tribute from the former. After the lapse of another thirty years, **Shamas-Iva** totally defeated **Merodach-belatzu-ikbi**, King of Babylonia, on the **Daban**, supposed to be the modern Upper Zab or Nil, and again rendered the kingdom tributary to Assyria. But soon after this came the revolution which materially altered the state of affairs in both countries, and about which very little, if anything, is known with certainty. It resulted, however, as we have already seen, in the establishment of a new dynasty in Assyria, and the reorganisation of Babylonia, which recovered its independence under **Nabonassar**, who established himself at Babylon, and appears to have been succeeded by five kings, whose reigns were short and troubled.

**747**  
B.C.

The fifth of these kings, **Merodach-Baladan**, reigned from 721 B.C. to 709 B.C., and maintained a gallant struggle against **Sargon**, who drove him from the throne, and placed a viceroy over the country. **Merodach-Baladan** is noteworthy for having sent an embassy to **Hezekiah**, king of Judah. He is called in the Bible **Berodach-baladan**. After his defeat by **Sargon**, he took refuge with the King of Persia, and by his aid made an attempt to regain his throne in 704 B.C., but was defeated by **Sennacherib** two years after. Until 625 B.C., when **Nabopolassar**, the Assyrian viceroy, established himself on the throne of Babylon, and aided **Cyaxares** to take **Nineveh** and put an end to the Assyrian empire, the chief events in Babylonian history are a series of revolts against the Assyrian kings, which were put down with great cruelty and severity.

**625**  
B.C.

When the new king of Babylon had been on the throne thirteen years, **Pharaoh-Necho**, king of Egypt, marched to the **Euphrates**, took **Carchemish**, and established a garrison there with the view of extending his conquests over Babylonia. On this, **Nabopolassar**, who was now advanced in years, took his son **Nebuchadnezzar** as a partner in the kingdom, and made preparations to recover the towns and territory that had fallen into the hands of the king of Egypt. The young prince obtained a complete victory over the Egyptians, and marching into **Judea**, took **Jerusalem**, rifled the temple, and compelled **Jehoiakim**, who had been placed on the throne by **Pharaoh-Necho**, to promise an annual tribute to the Baby-

**608**  
B.C.

**605**  
B.C.

lonians. The death of Nabopolassar in the following year placed him in full possession of the supreme authority in Babylon.

In 598 B.C. he marched into Palestine, and having first laid siege to Tyre, which held out for thirteen years, he went southward to Jerusalem, and having carried Jehoiakim and 10,000 Jews into captivity to Babylon, left Zedekiah on the Jewish throne (597 B.C.). The revolt of this prince against Nebuchadnezzar's authority, led to the siege and capture of Jerusalem in 587 B.C., and the transference of almost the whole of the Jewish nation to Babylonia. In 581 B.C. he marched against Egypt to punish Apries, or Pharaoh-Hophra, for lending assistance to Tyre, which capitulated in 585 B.C., and for inciting Zedekiah to rebel against him, and having invaded and overrun the country, he placed, or is supposed to have placed, Amasis on the throne as his vassal (570 B.C.).

The pride of Nebuchadnezzar, the magnificence of his state, and the extent of his power, with many of his acts, are related at length in the book of the prophet Daniel, a Jewish youth, who had been removed to Babylon after Nebuchadnezzar's first invasion of Judea and capture of Jerusalem in 605 B.C., and who had risen to a position of eminence at the court of Babylon by his wisdom.

A terrible punishment for his pride and neglect to worship the true God, of whose existence, powers, and goodness he had had ample evidence, was awaiting Nebuchadnezzar. He had just returned from Egypt when he was admonished by God in a dream, which none of his wise men could interpret. Daniel, however, declared that it was prophetic of the sentence denounced against him by heaven, in consequence of which he was to be driven out from the society of men, and become as a beast, and remain in that state till he should be brought to a due sense of the supremacy and omnipotence of God, when his kingdom should once more revert to him. This happened accordingly; and we are informed that Nebuchadnezzar was expelled the society of men, and that he ate grass as an ox, and his body was wet with the dew of heaven, till his hairs were grown like eagles' feathers, and his nails like birds' claws. It is uncertain when this happened, but it probably occurred soon after 570 B.C. His punishment lasted

**561**

B.C.

seven years, at the end of which time he was restored to reason and to his kingdom. From this time until his death, which happened shortly after,

he was a firm believer in the power, might, and majesty of the Almighty.

Nebuchadnezzar, who reigned forty-three years, was succeeded by his son Evil-Merodach. This king treated the captive Jewish monarch, Jehoiakim, with kindness, and raised him to a position of honour among the princes whom he held in captivity at Babylon. Evil-Merodach was murdered, after a short reign of two years, by Neriglissar, his sister's husband, who succeeded to the vacant throne. He reigned three years, and was succeeded

559

B.C.

by his son Laborosoarchod (556 B.C.), who addicted himself to all manner of wickedness, cruelty, and injustice. This evil-hearted young man reigned only nine months. He was

slain by his subjects, and was succeeded by Nabonadius, who had a chief hand in the murder. Nabonadius had been persuaded by Croesus, king of

555

B.C.

Lydia, to enter into a league with himself and the king of Egypt against Persia, whose power was then rapidly increasing, and whose king, Cyrus, was then pushing his conquests westward into Asia Minor. Cyrus took no immediate measures against Nabonadius, but, after subduing the several nations from the Euphrates to the Ægean Sea, and also Syria and Arabia, marched against Babylon (539 B.C.). Nabonadius gave him battle under the walls of the city. Being defeated, he made no attempt to re-enter his capital, but fled to Borsippa, where he shut himself up. His son, Belshazzar, however, who had been associated with his father in the government for two years, assumed the command in Babylon, and trusting that the immense strength of the walls and defences, and the vast resources within the city, would enable him to stand the siege until the enemy was tired, gave himself up to feasting and revelry. It was at one of the great banquets given to his lords, that Belshazzar, who had profaned at it the vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Jerusalem, saw written on the wall, and afterwards heard from the mouth of Daniel, the awful doom, *that his kingdom was taken from him, and given to the Medes and Persians*. In that same night, and probably before the prophet could well explain to the terrified monarch and his guests the true nature and import of the sentence on the wall, Cyrus and the Persians, who had turned the Euphrates from its course and thus gained an entrance,

**538** forced their way into the city, and put to the sword the king, the garrison, and all the inhabitants.  
**B.C.** Nabonadius, as soon as he heard of the fall of Babylon, hastened to tender his submission to Cyrus. Thus terminated the Babylonian empire, and thus were fulfilled the prophecies which Isaiah, Jeremiah, and Daniel had uttered against it.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Nabonassar establishes himself as king of Babylon .....	B.C. 747	Invasion of Palestine, and siege of Tyre; Jehoiakim carried to Babylon .....	B.C. 598
Merodach-Baladan becomes king of Babylon .....	„ 721	Second siege of Jerusalem by Nebuchadnezzar; the Jews carried into captivity .....	„ 587
Embassy from Merodach-Baladan to Hezekiah, king of Judah...	„ 713	Invasion of Egypt by Nebuchadnezzar in 581 B.C. and .....	„ 570
Merodach - Baladan driven from the throne by Sargon .....	„ 709	Nebuchadnezzar driven into the fields to herd with the beasts, about .....	„ 569
Babylonia under viceroys until Nabopolassar becomes king in .....	„ 625	Restored to health and to his throne, about...	„ 562
Invasion of Babylonia and reduction of Carchemish by Pharaoh-Necho .....	„ 608	Death of Nebuchadnezzar .....	„ 561
Egyptians driven from Carchemish, and Judea invaded by Nebuchadnezzar .....	„ 605	Invasion of Babylonia by Cyrus; defeat of Nabonadius .....	„ 539
Death of Nabopolassar, and accession of Nebuchadnezzar .....	„ 604	Capture of Babylon, death of Belshazzar, and end of Babylonian empire .....	„ 538

## KINGS OF BABYLON.

Nabonassar .....	B.C. 747	Nabopolassar .....	B.C. 635
Nadius .....	„ 733	Nebuchadnezzar .....	„ 604
Chinzius and Porus ...	„ 731	Evil-Merodach .....	„ 561
Elulæus .....	„ 726	Neriglissar .....	„ 559
Merodach-Baladan .....	„ 721	Laborosoarchod .....	„ 556
Assyrian viceroys .....	„ 709	Nabonadius .....	„ 555
Merodach-Baladan restored .....	„ 703	Belshazzar (assoc. in gov.) .....	„ 541
Assyrian viceroys .....	„ 702	End of Babylonian dynasty .....	„ 538



## CHAPTER VIII.

## MEDIA AND THE MEDES.

633 B.C. to 558 B.C.

## 1. GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.—CYAXARES.—ASTYAGES.—REBELLION OF CYRUS.

THE Medes were the descendants of Madai, the third son of Japheth, who gave his name to a tract of country which was bounded on the north by part of the Caspian Sea; on the east by Parthia and Hyrcania; on the south by Persia and Susiana; and on the west by Armenia and Assyria.

The Medes were once a very warlike people; but they afterwards became effeminate and luxurious. When a law was once enacted, it was not in the king's power to repeal it; and hence the unalterable decrees of the Medes are frequently alluded to in Holy Writ. Their religion and laws were nearly the same with those of the Persians.

Little or nothing is known of the early history of the Medes. It is stated by the Babylonian historian, Berosus, that they conquered Babylon prior to 2000 B.C., and gave to that country a dynasty of kings that lasted more than two centuries. About 835 B.C. records of victories obtained over the Medes appear in the inscriptions of the Assyrian kings. They were subjugated by Sargon, king of Assyria, 710 B.C., and this monarch placed many of the captive Israelites, removed after the siege of Samaria, in Media. The conquest, however, was by no means a permanent one, for Sennacherib and Esarhaddon speak of the country as being independent, and never conquered by Assyria.

The account given by Herodotus, which is far from being trustworthy, is that the Medes shook off the yoke of Assyria in 710 B.C., when they were actually overcome by Sargon, and gallantly defended their recovered liberties. They lived some time without a king; but the licentiousness and anarchy which began to prevail, enabled De-  
joces, a subtle and ambitious Mede, to get himself  
raised to the regal dignity. The first acts of the new sove-  
reign were those of a haughty and an imperious tyrant. He  
ordered a splendid palace and the famous city of Ecbatana to

be built, selected guards for the safety of his person, and enacted very arbitrary laws. Being induced to invade Assyria, his forces were defeated, and himself slain.

He was succeeded by his son Phraortes, who was a prince  
**651** of an enterprising spirit, and obtained possession of  
 B.C. all the Upper Asia between Mount Taurus and the river Halys. He also invaded Assyria, and besieged the metropolis of that country; but he perished in the attempt, with the greater part of his army.

The crown of Media now devolved on Cyaxares, a prince  
**634** of great courage and abilities, who subsequently  
 B.C. avenged on the Assyrians the defeat and death of his father. He laid siege to Nineveh, but just at this time the Scythians over-ran and ravaged Media; and the

**632** king, in order to free himself from them, invited  
 B.C. all their leaders to an entertainment, and caused them all to be massacred. After the Scythians had retired northwards again, Cyaxares entered into an alliance

**601** with Nabopolassar, the Assyrian viceroy of Baby-  
 B.C. lon, who had revolted from his allegiance to Asshur-emid-ilin and made himself absolute king in his viceroyalty. In conjunction with the Babylonians, Cyaxares resumed the siege of Nineveh, and levelled that proud metropolis with the ground, the king, Asshur-emid-ilin, having set fire to his palace and perished in the flames.

Whether or not such kings as Dejoces and Phraortes reigned in Media is a matter of doubt. Herodotus is the only authority for their existence. Ctesias, another Greek writer, gives totally different names for the Median kings prior to Cyaxares, whose origin is not really known, and who seems to have emerged suddenly from obscurity, like many of the Eastern conquerors of ancient and mediæval times, and to have founded the power of Media about 635 B.C. Indeed, some writers are inclined to think that he came from the east at the head of a numerous band of followers, and, having settled in Media, induced the natives to submit to his sway, and thus inaugurated a new Western Asiatic monarchy.

By the conquest of Nineveh, Assyria Proper and Mesopotamia fell under the sway of the Median prince,  
**615** who proceeded to advance westward against Asia  
 B.C. Minor. Here he came into collision with the Lydians, an ancient people of the peninsula, whose origin is

involved in considerable obscurity. Under the Mermnad kings, the last dynasty of the Lydian monarchs, the kingdom of Lydia had absorbed the greater part of Asia Minor, and the western power pushing eastward, and the eastern power advancing westward, at last came into collision. It is said that the war between Lydia and Media was occasioned by the refusal of the king of Lydia to surrender to Cyaxares some fugitives who had sought his protection. It lasted six years, and was brought to a conclusion by an eclipse which happened during a battle on the banks of the Halys, and which induced the combatants to suspend hostilities and make peace. From this time nothing of im-  
610  
B.C.
portance is said in history of Cyaxares, who probably turned his attention to the internal regulation of his neighbours. There was an interchange of friendly relations between Babylonia and Media, for Cyaxares assisted Nebuchadnezzar in his wars against Tyre, Palestine, and Egypt. Cyaxares died in 593 B.C., and was succeeded by his son Astyages.

It had been sought to render the peace between Lydia and Media more durable by the marriage of the daughter of Astyages and granddaughter of Cyaxares to Croesus, the son of Alyattes, king of Lydia, who had come to the throne a short time before the two powers came to blows. Astyages passed a quiet uneventful life, undertaking no wars for thirty-five years. At that time Persia was tributary to Media, but the accession of Cyrus, a bold and resolute prince, to the Persian throne, whom tradition declared to be a grandson of Astyages without much reason, was followed by a rupture between Media and Persia, and the declaration of Persian independence. The invasion of Media was immediately undertaken by Cyrus, to whom Astyages submitted after a single conflict before Ecbatana. Another account says that Astyages invaded Persia to punish Cyrus for his rebellion, and defeated his army after two days' hard fighting. In his advance on Pasargadæ, the Persian capital, he was met by the Persians, who had rallied, and defeated after another desperate battle. A third conflict followed, in which Cyrus was victorious, and the Persian prince immediately assumed the title of king of Media and Persia. Astyages was treated with marked kindness by Cyrus, and is supposed to have been made viceroy of Babylon when the

city was taken by the Persians, and to have been the "Darius, the Median," of the Jewish historians.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Media supposed to be conquered by Sargon, king of Assyria .....	B.C. 710	siege of two years by Cyaxares .....	B.C. 625
Invasion of Assyria by the Medes, who lose their king and retreat ..	634	War between Media and Lydia .....	615
Accession of Cyaxares, first king of Media of whose existence there is certainty .....	633	Battle of the Halys; peace concluded between Media and Lydia .....	610
Invasion of Media by Cyaxares frustrated by a Scythian invasion .....	632	Accession of Astyages, the son of Cyaxares ...	593
Nineveh taken after a		Revolt of Cyrus, end of the Median empire, and dethronement of Astyages by Cyrus ...	558

#### KINGS OF MEDIA.

Cyaxares .....	B.C. 633	Astyages.....	B.C. 593
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### CHAPTER IX.

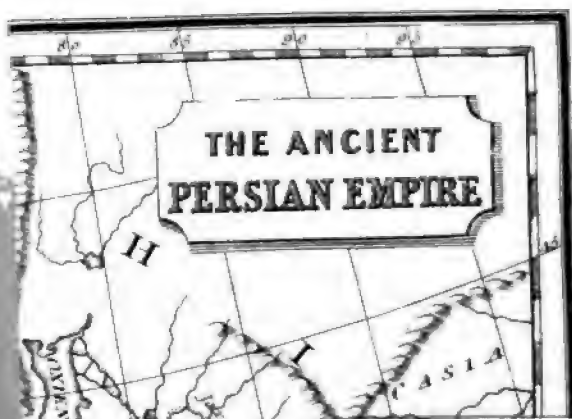
#### THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

558 B.C. to 332 B.C.

##### 1. GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.—ORIGIN OF THE PERSIANS.—CYRUS.—CAMBYSES.—SMERDIS.


558 B.C. to 521 B.C.

THE country to which the name Persia was originally applied lay on the northern shore of the Persian Gulf. It was about 300 miles in length from north to south, and 250 miles in breadth from east to west, and was bounded by Media on the north, Elam or Susiana on the west, and a vast tract of desert country and Caramania on the east. At the height of its glory the Persian empire included Asia Minor, Egypt, and Libya, and extended about 2,800 English miles in length, from the Hellespont to the mouth of the Indus; and about



... the main were beaten by the eastern monarch, and Abraham's nephew Lot and his servants were among the captives that they took with them from the scene of strife. While on the march homeward Chedor-  
lamer was overtaken and vanquished by the patriarch Abra-

B.C.



north, Elam or Susiana on the west, and a vast tract of desert country and Caramania on the east. At the height of its glory the Persian empire included Asia Minor, Egypt and Libya, and extended about 2,800 English miles in length from the Hellespont to the mouth of the Indus; and a

1,500 miles in breadth, from the borders of the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral to the Persian Gulf and Arabian Sea.

The Persians are supposed to have descended from Elam, the son of Shem; and in Scripture they are sometimes denominated Elamites. It is supposed that the Persians were originally instructed in the knowledge of the true God by their progenitor Elam, and that they were recovered from certain erroneous opinions by the patriarch Abraham. All this, however, is mere conjecture, and cannot be substantiated. The early Persians, however, whatever may have been their origin, had a far more refined and spiritual kind of faith than the surrounding nations. They worshipped the sun and moon, and the elements earth, air, fire, and water. Their priests, the *magi*, formed a powerful part of the community, and zealously taught the people to adore the most striking objects of nature, of which the principal, according to them, were the sun and fire. In later times Zoroaster, who was born about 589 B.C., taught them to look on these as the emblems of Auramasda or Oromasdes, a beneficent spirit or divinity, the author of everything that was good, and to consider the sun as his noblest creature, and his immediate seat or throne; and to regard the element of fire as the purest symbol of the Divine Nature. Opposed to this good spirit, who was looked on as the Lord and Giver of Life and Light, was Ahriman, the great principle of Evil, and the Lord of Death and Night. A continual contest was supposed to be going on between these spirits, one trying to benefit and the other seeking to injure the human race; the former sending blessings of every kind on the earth, while the latter plagued men with disease, war, famine, and every evil that falls on the human race.

The first king of Elam mentioned in Scripture is Chedorlaomer, who conquered many of the Asiatic provinces, and held the kings of Sodom, Gomorrah, Bela, Admah, and Zeboim in subjection for twelve years. At the end of this period they rebelled, and Chedorlaomer and his allies once more marched against them. The confederate kings of the cities of the plain were beaten by the eastern monarch, and Abraham's nephew Lot and his servants were among the captives that they took with them from the scene of strife. While on the march homeward Chedorlaomer was overtaken and vanquished by the patriarch Abra-

1913  
B.C.

ham, and lost the sovereignty of the Pentapolis. From this period to the reign of Cyrus, the history of Elam or Persia is clouded with fiction.

It is, however, probable that for many years Persia had been tributary to the kings of Media, although it was under the immediate government of native princes when

**559**  
B.C. Cyrus, the founder of the Persian empire, came to the throne. Cyrus, who was styled the Great, on account of his extensive conquests and his restoration of the captive Jews, was, according to Herodotus, the son of Cambyses, a Persian grandee, and of Mandane, daughter of Astyages, king of the Medes. The king had dreamt that a son of Mandane would achieve the conquest of all Asia, Media included, and to prevent this, when the child was born he ordered him to be taken from the mother and exposed on the mountains. He was saved by Harpagus, a Median noble to whom the king had entrusted the business, and brought up by the king's chief herdsman. When he was twelve years old the fraud was accidentally discovered, and the boy was taken to the palace of his grandfather, and sent by him to his parents in Persia. It is then alleged that the cruel way in which Astyages punished Harpagus for his deceit led to a conspiracy among the Median nobles. The story of the king's dream was told to Cyrus, who was active, brave, and ambitious, and as soon as he was old enough he readily accepted the invitation of the malcontents to march against his grandfather. Whether the story is true or not is uncertain. Most probably it was invented to throw a halo of romance around the revolt of the Persians under Cyrus, and his seizure of the Median throne, which took place 558 B.C.

Croesus, the king of Lydia, anxious to retaliate on Cyrus for the dethronement of his father-in-law Astyages, on the one hand, and to stop the growing power of Persia on the other, immediately took up arms against the Persian king, and induced the kings of Egypt and Babylon to enter into alliance with him, and to furnish a contingent of troops to the army that he was gathering. Too impatient, however, to give his allies time to make the necessary preparations, Croesus marched rapidly into Cappadocia, and took Pteria; but on the unexpected approach of Cyrus, who attacked him without any decisive result, he retreated with equal haste to Sardis, whither Cyrus followed him. A collision took place on the



plain before Thymbra, a small town near Sardis. The battle was extremely bloody, and Cyrus himself was sometimes in imminent danger; but at length the Lydians gave way on all sides. After this engagement, Cyrus took Sardis, the capital of Lydia, and made Croesus prisoner. After subduing the Greek colonies in Asia Minor, Syria, and Arabia, and extending his dominions and securing his frontier northwards and eastwards as far as the Caucasus Mountains, the Sea of Aral, the Jaxartes, and the Indus, he marched against Babylon, which he reduced after a siege of two years, and put an end to the Babylonian empire.

548

B.C.

538

B.C.

About two years after the reduction of Babylon, Cyrus fixed his residence in that city, and published the famous decree by which the Jews were permitted to return to their native country. He also restored all the vessels which Nebuchadnezzar had brought from Jerusalem. It was about this time that Phœnicia was annexed to the Persian empire. Cyrus, who was greatly beloved by all the nations that acknowledged his dominion, fell in an expedition against the Massagetæ, a tribe of Scythians who inhabited the country between the northern part of the Caspian Sea and the Sea of Aral. He was buried near his capital, Pasargadæ, and the tomb in which he is supposed to have been laid may be seen to this day at Murg-haub.

536

B.C.

529

B.C.

Cyrus was succeeded by his son Cambyzes, who, soon after his accession to the throne, resolved to undertake an expedition against Egypt, and in that kingdom committed great cruelties and devastations. He defeated the Egyptian king Psammenitus in a great battle near Pelusium, and afterwards laid siege to Memphis, which he took after a brief but determined resistance. He spared the life of Psammenitus, but subsequently caused him to be poisoned for entering into a conspiracy to recover his throne. After the conquest of Egypt, he projected an expedition against Ethiopia, and sent thither spies, who, under the specious character of ambassadors, might procure information relative to the strength and political situation of the country. When the ambassadors returned, the king of Ethiopia sent a message to Cambyzes, reproaching him for desiring more than his own, and seeking to enslave a people that had never in-

525

B.C.

jured him. The Persian king, whose temper was as violent

**524**

**B.C.**

and dangerous as his rage was uncontrollable, was so exasperated that he commanded his army to march immediately for Ethiopia, though they were unprovided with any necessaries for such an expedition. But the king quickly found his troops in want of provisions, water, and everything requisite ; and the soldiers, after eating their beasts of burden, were obliged to choose one man by lot out of ten, to serve for food to his companions. At length, after having sacrificed the flower of his army to this undertaking, he was obliged to retreat to Thebes in Egypt. He had also sent against the Ammonians another army, with orders to burn the temple of Jupiter-Ammon, but his troops were lost to a man, and were never heard of again, having been overwhelmed, it is thought, by a sand-storm in the Libyan Desert.

Irritated by misfortune, Cambyses continued to perpetrate frightful cruelties in Egypt, and offered an unpardonable insult to the priests and people of the country, by killing a calf which the former asserted to be the representative on earth of the god Apis. He became jealous of his brother Smerdis, whom he caused to be assassinated at Susa by his principal favourite, Prexaspes. He had married his sister Meroë ; but when she lamented the hard destiny of her brother Smerdis, he struck her with his foot in so brutal a manner as to occasion her death. He shot an arrow through the heart of the son of Prexaspes, to prove, as he said, that wine did not take from him the use of his faculties. He ordered Croesus, the dethroned king of Lydia, who had become a firm friend to himself and his father in his captivity, to be executed. Those, however, who received the orders, ventured to conceal the devoted prince, on the supposition that Cambyses might repent of his ill-timed severity ; but, though Cambyses was glad the next day to find Croesus still alive, he commanded those who had disobeyed his orders to be put to death. Cambyses was returning into Persia to quell a revolt which

**522**

**B.C.**

had been occasioned by Gomates, one of the magi, who pretended to be the brother of the king, in consequence of an accidental resemblance to him, and had usurped the throne, when he accidentally received a wound from his sword, of which he died, it is said, at a place called Ecbatana, in Syria.

The counterfeit Smerdis was injured by his excessive pre-

cautions. Cyrus having formerly caused the ears of the magi to be cut off, this mutilation occasioned a discovery ; and a conspiracy of seven of the principal Persian grandees being formed against Gomates, he was assassinated. When the public tumults had subsided, the conspirators held a council on the kind of government which should be established, and after some debate they determined in favour of monarchy. They agreed, therefore, to meet next morning on horseback, at an appointed place near the city, and to acknowledge him whose horse first neighed as king of Persia. This plan was reduced to execution ; and Darius, the son of Hystaspes, by a stratagem of his groom, obtained the sovereignty.

531  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Cyrus becomes king of Persia .....	B.C. 559	Annexation of Phœnicia to Persia, and decree for return of the Jews .....	B.C. 536
Cyrus dethrones Astyages, and ascends the throne of Media .....	„ 558	Expedition against the Massagetæ, and death of Cyrus .....	„ 529
Croesus, king of Lydia, defeated by Cyrus in the battle of Thymbra .....	„ 548	Conquest of Egypt by Cambyzes .....	„ 525
Capture of Sardis, and dethronement of Croesus .....	„ 546	Usurpation of the throne by the Magian Gomates, and death of Cambyzes .....	„ 522
Conquest of Asia Minor by Cyrus effected about .....	„ 543	Assassination of Gomates, and accession of Darius I. (Hystaspes) .....	„ 521
Conquest of Babylon by Cyrus, and end of Babylonian empire ...	„ 538		

2. DARIUS I.—XERXES.—THE PERSIAN INVASIONS OF GREECE.—ARTAXERXES.

521 B.C. to 425 B.C.

Darius had scarcely entered the fifth year of his reign, when he was compelled to lead all his forces against Babylon, which had revolted, and made great preparations for sustaining a regular siege. After the city had been besieged for some months, it was taken by the contrivance of Zopyrus, who cut off his own nose and ears, and pretending that he was thus mangled by the Persian

517  
B.C.

monarch for advising him to relinquish his undertaking, was admitted into the city by the inhabitants. It is almost needless to say that Zopyrus took advantage of the first opportunity to throw open the gates and give admittance to the Persians.

Having settled the affairs of Babylon, Darius undertook an expedition against the Scythians, on pretence of revenging the calamities which that people had brought upon Asia about 120 years before. By means of a bridge of boats, he transported his army across the Bosphorus, and subdued Thrace; and having appointed his fleet to join him at the Ister, or Danube, he also passed over that river into Scythia. The Scythians avoided an engagement, and retired before him, laying waste the country, and filling up all the wells and springs, till the Persian troops were quite exhausted with tedious and fatiguing marches. At last Darius resolved to abandon this wild enterprise; and re-crossing the Danube, he returned into Thrace, where he left Megabyzus, one of his generals, to complete the conquest of the Thracian tribes; and repassing the Bosphorus, took up his quarters at Sardis for a short time, and then returned to Susa.

Darius, before his return to Persia, appointed his brother Artaphernes to the government of Sardis; and a sedition happening soon after in Naxos, the chief island of the Cyclades, in the Ægean Sea, the Persian satrap endeavoured to turn this to the advantage of the king, and to open a free passage into Greece. The attempt of subjecting Naxos, however, not only proved abortive, but the Ionians openly revolted from Darius (501 B.C.), and made

preparations for carrying on the war both by sea and land. Having received a reinforcement of twenty ships from Athens, the Ionians assembled all their troops, sailed for Ephesus, where they left their vessels, and marching to the city of Sardis, reduced it to ashes. The Persians, however, overtook them in their retreat, and defeated them with great slaughter. The Athenians returned home, and would not again take any part in this war; but their having engaged thus far gave rise to that contest between the two nations, which finally terminated in the destruction of the Persian empire.

The struggle of Ionia against Persia lasted six years, and

then Darius, having defeated the Greek fleet off *Ladé*, and reduced to subjection the Ionians and all the islands on the Asiatic coasts, appointed his nephew Mardonius to the command of his forces, and ordered him to invade Greece, and take ample vengeance on the Athenians and Eretrians, for the destruction of Sardis. Accordingly, Mardonius assembled his troops at the Hellespont, and marched through Thrace into Macedonia, which voluntarily submitted. But the fleet, in doubling Mount Athos, was dispersed and nearly destroyed by a tremendous storm; and the army was suddenly attacked by the Thracians, who slaughtered a great number of the Persians. These unfortunate events obliged Mardonius to return into Asia.

495

B.C.

492

B.C.

Darius, ascribing the ill success of this expedition to the inexperience of Mardonius, recalled him, and appointed two other generals in his room, Datis, a Mede, and Artaphernes, son of the late governor of Sardis. But before he ordered another attempt to be made against Greece, he sent heralds, who, in accordance with the Persian method, demanded of the Grecian states earth and water, in token of submission. Finding from the treatment which the heralds experienced at Athens and Sparta, that the Greeks would not easily submit, he commanded Datis and Artaphernes to set sail with a fleet of 600 ships and 500,000 men, to plunder the cities of Eretria and Athens, to reduce all the houses and temples to ashes, and to send the inhabitants in chains to Susa.

490

B.C.

The Persian generals having taken Naxos and Eretria, sailed to Attica, and were conducted by Hippias, the son of Pisistratus, to the plains of Marathon. The Lacedæmonians were unable to act against the common enemy for some days, on account of a superstitious custom, which would not allow them to begin a march before the full moon. The inhabitants of Platæa furnished 1000, and the Athenians 9000 men; and this small force marched to the plains of Marathon to give battle to the Persians. Miltiades having assumed the command of the Grecian troops, gave the signal for engaging, and animated the Athenians so successfully by his words and example, that they attacked the Persians with irresistible fury, and, after a sanguinary conflict, chased them to their fleet, and burnt several of their vessels. The conquerors found

among the baggage marbles which the Persians had brought to erect a monument of their victory, and chains intended to bind the vanquished.

When Darius was informed of the unsuccessful return of his forces, he resolved to invade Greece in person, at the head of a still more powerful army ; but after spending  
**485** three years in making preparations for this expedi-  
**B.C.** tion, he was compelled to march into Egypt (486 B.C.) to put down a revolt in that country, and in the following year sickened and died. This prince is honourably mentioned in Scripture as a favourer of the Israelites, as a restorer of God's temple, and a promoter of the holy worship at Jerusalem. He was endowed with many excellent qualities ; and the ancients commend him for his wisdom, justice, and clemency.

Darius having declared his son Xerxes, who was born after his father's accession to the throne, his successor in the kingdom, this prince continued the preparations against Greece as soon as the revolt in Egypt was completely subdued (483 B.C.). He entered into an alliance with the Carthaginians, who were to attack the Greek colonies in Sicily and Italy, and who raised an army of 300,000 men in Spain, Gaul, Italy, and Africa. To prevent a repetition of the former disaster which befel the Persian fleet, Xerxes commanded a passage for his galleys to be cut behind Mount Athos. He also ordered a bridge of boats to be laid across the Hellespont for the passage of his troops into Europe.

Having made the necessary preparations, the Persian monarch hastened to Sardis in 481 B.C., and having  
**480** spent the winter there, began his march against  
**B.C.** Greece in the following spring, with an army of 1,800,000 men. His fleet consisted of 1207 large ships, and 3000 galleys and transports, which contained 517,610 men ; so that the whole body of forces amounted to 2,317,610. This number was so much increased on the march by such nations as made their submission, that Xerxes arrived at Thermopylæ with 2,641,610 men, besides servants and camp followers, which raised the aggregate total to about double this number.

In the meantime, the Athenians and Lacedæmonians, abandoned by all the other Greeks except the Thespians and Platæans, nominated Themistocles general of the Athenian,

and Leonidas of the Spartan forces. After various proposals, it was at length determined that Leonidas, at the head of 4000 men, should hasten to defend the straits of Thermopylæ, a narrow pass between the mountains that divide Thessaly from Greece, and the only way through which the Persians could advance by land into Attica. Accordingly, Leonidas marched thither with all possible expedition, positively determined to stop the progress of the invaders, or to perish in the attempt. Xerxes endeavoured to corrupt him; but finding his offers rejected, he sent a herald to demand his arms. Leonidas, in a laconic style, answered, "Come and take them." Then sending away all his allies, Leonidas, with 300 Spartans, prepared to keep the pass against the myriads of Persia, a hopeless sacrifice as it proved, but these warriors, whose number was so small, resisted the attack of the whole Persian army, till at length they were buried beneath the darts, arrows, and other missile weapons of their multitudinous assailants.

News being brought to Athens of the enemy's approach, Themistocles persuaded the Athenians to send their wives and children to places of security; to abandon their city to the Persians; and to embark on board a fleet, which might possibly yet arrest the victories of an insulting foe. Some, however, who literally interpreted the oracle, that "Athens should be saved by wooden walls," attempted to fortify the city with boards and palisades, but perceived their mistake when it was too late.

In the meantime, the Grecian fleet was victorious over that of Persia in some partial engagements, and afterwards completely at the battle of Salamis, in which the dispersion was so general, and the defeat so decisive, that Xerxes, afraid of not being able to preserve a single vessel to carry him from Europe, made a hasty retreat, and was conveyed into Asia in a small boat. This success inspired the other Greeks with new courage; and they joined the Athenians and Lacedæmonians in harassing the Persians on all sides. The army ventured a decisive battle at Plataea in Boeotia, where, out of 300,000, not 50,000 Persians escaped. On the same day, the remainder of the Persian fleet was destroyed at Mycale, a promontory in Asia. Money and intrigue, however, still preserved the Persians an influence in Greece, and for a long time assisted the efforts of their arms.

479

B.C.

Soon after the failure of the expedition against Greece Xerxes returned to Susa, where he abandoned himself to a career of dissipation for the remainder of his life. Before his death the Ionians had regained their independence, and Persian supremacy in Asia Minor weakened by the victory gained by the Greeks in the battle of the Eurymedon, in which the Persian fleet was totally defeated (466 B.C.). The dissolute conduct of Xerxes had long rendered him obnoxious

465

B.C.

to his subjects; and he was murdered at last by his chief favourite Artabanus, who placed himself on the throne, and, to secure himself in his new position, sought to destroy the sons of the late king. Darius, the eldest, fell a victim to the ambition of Artabanus, but Artaxerxes, who was possessed of considerable strength, resisted an attack made on him by Artabanus and some of his friends, and slew the usurper in the conflict. It is supposed by some that Xerxes is the Ahasuerus of the Scripture who married the Jewish maiden Esther, while others think that it was his son Artaxerxes who contracted this alliance.

After attacking and defeating the adherents of Artabanus, Artaxerxes, who was called Longimanus because his right hand was longer and larger than his left, found himself compelled to defend his crown against the attempts of his brother Hystaspes, who held the government of Bactria. He sent an army into Bactria, which had declared in favour of Hystaspes; and though victory was doubtful in the first battle, Artaxerxes was successful in the second, and firmly established himself in the empire.

In the fifth year of this reign the Egyptians, aided by the

460

B.C.

Athenians, and headed by Inarus, made a violent struggle for their liberty, but their exertions proved ineffectual. The Greek army and fleet in Egypt was completely destroyed in 455 B.C.; but six years afterwards the Greeks sent another expedition to Egypt to the assistance of Amyrtæus in the Egyptian Delta, and defeated the Persians by sea and land at Salamis, in Cyprus. Negotiations were then entered into at Susa, by which it was agreed that the Greek colonies in the west of Asia Minor should hereafter be considered free of Persia, that no Persian ship of war should be permitted to sail to the west of the Cyanean Rocks at the entrance to the Thracian Bosphorus, or the Chelidonian Islands off the coast of Lycia, and that no



Persian general should advance within three days' march of the Grecian seas. The Greeks also bound themselves to make no more attempts on Egypt and Cyprus.

Megabyzus, the Persian satrap of Syria, who was indignant because the mother of the king had persuaded Artaxerxes to crucify a prince to whom he had promised pardon, raised the standard of rebellion. The difference, however, was adjusted to the satisfaction of all parties, and Megabyzus enjoyed at the Persian court his former dignities. Artaxerxes died in peace, and left the succession to Xerxes II., the only legitimate son he had by his queen, though he had seventeen natural sons, among whom were Sogdianus, Ochus, and Arsites.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Capture and destruction of Babylon by Darius I. ....	B.C. 516	fleet defeated at Salamis .....	B.C. 480
Invasion of Macedonia and Thrace by the Persians .....	„ 514	Battles of Mycale and Platæa. — The Persians retreat from Greece .....	„ 479
Revolt of the island of Naxos .....	„ 502	Defeat of the Persians in the sea fight of the Eurymedon, and recovery of independence by Ionia .....	„ 466
Defeat of the Persians in the war with Naxos...	„ 501	Murder of Xerxes I. by Artabanus, who ascends the throne .....	„ 465
Revolt of the Ionians ...	„ 500	Artaxerxes I. kills Artabanus, and recovers his father's throne ...	„ 464
Termination of Ionian revolt, and defeat of the Greek fleet at Ladé ...	„ 495	Revolt of Egyptians under Inarus.....	„ 460
Invasion of Greece by Mardonius, who is defeated by land and sea ..	„ 492	Defeat of Persians by Greeks at Salamis, in Cyprus. — Treaty between Greece and Persia .....	„ 449
Unsuccessful expedition against Greece under Datis and Artaphernes ..	„ 490	Death of Artaxerxes I. ...	„ 425
Revolt of the Egyptians ..	„ 486		
Death of Darius I., and accession of Xerxes I. ...	„ 485		
Invasion of Greece by Xerxes I. — Persian			

## 3. INTESTINE STRIFE AND DISORDER IN PERSIA.—FOREIGN INVASION.

425 B.C. to 336 B.C.

Xerxes II. had worn the diadem only two months when, being inebriated at a public entertainment, Sogdianus seized

**425** an opportunity to assassinate him. The regicide  
 B.C. was scarcely seated on the throne when, Ochus  
 having declared his intention of revenging the murder of Xerxes, Sogdianus was deserted by all his subjects, and finally doomed to expiate his crimes by a cruel death.

Ochus, being now invested with supreme authority, assumed the title of Darius II., and is mentioned by historians under the appellation of Darius Nothus, or Darius the Bastard. His brother Arsites endeavoured to supplant him in the empire by the assistance of Astyphius, the son of Megabyzus; but after hazarding three battles, Astyphius surrendered himself to the king, and Arsites, hearing that his colleague was treated with great clemency, followed his example, upon which both the rebels were thrown into burning ashes.

In this reign the Egyptians shook off the Persian yoke, and the Medes also revolted. Darius, having settled the affairs of the rebellious provinces, bestowed the  
**413** supreme command of Asia Minor on his youngest  
 B.C. son Cyrus, who was ordered to assist the Lacedæmonians against the Athenians. This order, however, soon

**407** exposed the weakness of the king's politics; for the  
 B.C. Lacedæmonians, after conquering the Athenians, subsequently invaded the Persian provinces in Asia. Darius, in consequence of a charge of cruelty that had been made against Cyrus, recalled him to court. The queen, however, who was very partial to Cyrus, and possessed an absolute sway over her royal consort, effected a complete reconciliation, and prevailed on the king to bequeath those provinces to her favourite son which he had recently appointed him to govern.

Soon after this Darius died, and left the imperial diadem to his son Artaxerxes, who received the appellation of Mnemon on account of his extraordinary memory.

**404** Cyrus resolved to exert all his abilities to drive his  
 B.C. brother from the throne, and having procured 10,000 Greek mercenaries, marched into Babylonia. He was met on the plain of Cunaxa, about forty miles from Babylon, by his brother Artaxerxes, at the head of a large army ready for

**401** battle. A sanguinary contest immediately commenced, and Cyrus, on seeing his brother, engaged  
 B.C. him with such fury as seemed to change the battle into a single combat. The rebellious prince, however, fell by the swords of the king and his guards. The 10,000 Greeks,

under the conduct of Xenophon, effected that memorable retreat which has always been considered as a noble achievement among military operations.

Artaxerxes made several attempts to regain the lost supremacy of Persia in Egypt without success. He waged continual war with the Greeks, who, ever disagreeing among themselves, were incapable of pursuing a fixed plan of operations. Agesilaus, king of Sparta, invaded Asia Minor for the common good, but was compelled by quarrels in the Peloponnesus to return before he could strike any effective blow against the power of Persia, while his fleet was defeated by the Persians, assisted by the Athenians, at the battle of Cnidus (394 B.C.). At length the Lacedæmonians, finding themselves unable to maintain the war, sent Antalcidas to conclude a peace with the governor of Sardis, on the best terms he could obtain. Athens and the other cities of Greece also sent their deputies, and a treaty was concluded, by which Antalcidas basely surrendered to the Persians all the Greek cities in Asia Minor. 396  
B.C.

Artaxerxes, being freed from the Grecian war, turned his arms against Evagoras, king of Cyprus, whom he compelled to cede all the cities of Cyprus, except Salamis, which he was allowed to hold as a tributary monarch under the king of Persia. He then resolved on an expedition against the Caducians, a warlike people, who inhabited a mountainous tract between the Euxine and Caspian Seas. The king headed this expedition in person; but it was wholly unsuccessful, and the Persians were only rescued from impending ruin by a stratagem of Tiribazus, a Persian nobleman. 387  
B.C.

Artaxerxes, deeming it advisable to silence the contentions of his sons—he had a hundred and fifteen, of whom only three, Darius, Ariaspes, and Ochus, were legitimate—respecting the succession, permitted Darius to assume the title of king and wear the tiara even during his life; but these honours did not satisfy the ambition of the young prince, and he conspired to murder his father with Tiribazus, who was offended with the king for twice withholding from him a princess who had been promised to him in marriage. The ingratitude of Darius, however, was discovered in time, and the conspirators were executed. 384  
B.C.

On the death of Darius three of the princes, viz., Ariaspes, Ochus, and Arsames, became competitors for the crown. Ochus practised so effectually on the credulity of Ariaspes

**359**

B.C.

that he poisoned himself, and Arsames was assassinated by the son of Tiribazus. These acts of cruelty overwhelmed Artaxerxes with such insupportable grief that he died.

Conscious that his father's justice and clemency were venerated throughout the whole empire, and apprehensive of the ill consequences which might result from an immediate avowal of his succession, Ochus, or Artaxerxes III., concealed the death of the king, and assumed the administration of government in the name of his father. He caused himself, in the name of the king, to be declared his successor, and, after ten months, he published the death of Artaxerxes II. An insurrection in several of the provinces immediately followed; but the leaders of the confederacy disagreeing among themselves, the rebellion terminated without any effusion of blood. Ochus no sooner possessed absolute authority, than he began to fill his capital and the whole empire with carnage and misery.

This insupportable tyranny occasioned another rebellion,

**354**

B.C.

under the satrap Artabazus, which was not quelled without much difficulty. This revolt was scarcely terminated, when the Sidonians and other natives of Phœnicia joined the Cypriots and Egyptians in a confederacy against Persia. By the aid of his Greek generals,

**351**

B.C.

Artaxerxes III. effected the reduction of Sidon, and compelled all the other cities to make submission. He also reduced the city of Jericho, and having concluded a peace with the kings of Cyprus, he led his victorious troops into Egypt, which he completely subdued (350 B.C.).

Having reduced all the revolted provinces, Artaxerxes abandoned himself to the gratification of his depraved appetites, and passed his time amidst every species of luxury and voluptuousness. Bagoas, an Egyptian, to whom was

**338**

B.C.

committed the administration of affairs, and who was indignant on account of the insult offered to his religion at the subjugation of his country—when Artaxerxes had plundered all the Egyptian temples and killed the sacred bull Apis—prevailed on the king's physician to ad-

minister to him a strong poison, instead of medicine. He then placed on the throne Arses, the youngest prince, and condemned all the rest to death. But Arses, sensible of the slavery in which he was held, concerted measures to free himself from it. Bagoas, therefore, effected his destruction in the second year of his reign, and bestowed the imperial diadem on Darius III., Codomannus, who was a descendant of Darius Nothus, and at that time governor of Armenia. This prince, however, had not long enjoyed the sovereignty, when the ambitious Egyptian determined to remove him, and with this design provided a deleterious potion; but Darius, being apprised of his danger, compelled Bagoas to drink the poison, and thus established himself on the throne.

336

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Xerxes II., and then his brother Sogdianus .....	B.C. 425	at the sea fight of the Cnidus .....	B.C. 394
Accession of Darius II., Nothus .....	„ 424	Persia regains the Greek cities of Asia Minor by the Peace of An- talcidas .....	„ 387
Egypt becomes inde- pendent under Amyr- teus .....	„ 413	Accession of Artaxerxes III. ....	„ 359
Accession of Artaxerxes Mnemon .....	„ 404	Revolt and reduction of Phœnicia, etc. ....	„ 351
Battle of Cunaxa, and death of Cyrus .....	„ 400	Invasion and subjugation of Egypt .....	„ 350
Invasion of Asia Minor by Agesilaus, King of Sparta .....	„ 396	Bagoas poisons Artaxerxes III., and places Arses on the throne...	„ 338
Spartans defeated by Persians and Athenians		Accession of Darius III., Codomannus .....	„ 336

## 4. THE INVASION OF ALEXANDER THE GREAT, AND SUBVERSION OF THE PERSIAN EMPIRE.

336 B.C. to 330 B.C.

In the second year of the reign of Darius III., Alexander the Great, king of Macedon, crossed the Hellespont, and passed into Asia Minor, at the head of a well-disciplined army, with the design of revenging the injuries which Greece had received from the Persians during 300 years. On his arrival at the Granicus, he found on the opposite bank a numerous Persian army, amounting to

334

B.C.

100,000 foot, and 10,000 horse. Though Alexander had not more than 30,000 foot and 5,000 horse, he crossed the Granicus at the head of his cavalry, and attacked with impetuosity the whole Persian force. An obstinate conflict ensued, in which the Persians were defeated with the loss of 20,000 foot and 2,000 horse, and in which Alexander exposed his life to the most imminent danger. Having thus obtained a decisive victory, Alexander besieged and took Miletus and Halicarnassus, and received embassies from several cities which acknowledged his authority.

The invasion having assumed a serious aspect, Darius began his march against the conqueror at the head of a numerous army, and met him in Cilicia, near the city of Issus, where Alexander had drawn up his troops in an advantageous position on a narrow plain. The Persian monarch, unable to extend his front beyond that of the enemy, drew up his army in several lines, one behind the other. But the Macedonians having broken the first line, a scene of confusion immediately followed, and the Persians were completely defeated. Darius retreated precipitately to the adjoining mountains, where he mounted a horse, and continued his flight. In the meantime, the Greek mercenaries in the pay of the Persian monarch performed prodigies of valour, and withstood the furious attack of the Macedonian army till 12,000 of them were slain. Alexander was now entire master of the field, and of the Persian camp, in which the mother, wife, and son of Darius, were taken prisoners. After this battle, fortune constantly favoured him. Parmenio took Damascus, in which he found an immense quantity of

treasure belonging to the Persian crown; while Alexander himself occupied Phœnicia and reduced Tyre, after a long siege, and received the submission of Palestine, Cyprus, and Egypt; and penetrating through the desert of Libya to the oasis of Ammon, now called Sinah, was declared to be the son of the god by the oracle of Jupiter Ammon.

In the meantime, Darius, being overcome by the kind and tender behaviour of Alexander towards his wife, his mother, and his son, offered to relinquish all the Asiatic provinces as far as the Halys, and all the countries between the Hellespont and the Euphrates, and tendered 30,000 talents for the ransom of his family. But these proposals were rejected, and

Darius was required to descend from his throne, and to acknowledge the king of Macedon as his sovereign.

The Persian monarch, therefore, having assembled a more numerous army than that which fought at Issus, prepared for battle in a large plain, near Arbela, a city about forty miles south-east of the ancient Nineveh. The Persians commenced the attack with great fury and resolution; but, after an obstinate conflict, they were totally routed, and Darius was again compelled to seek safety in flight, and retired to Ecbatana.

331  
B.C.

Alexander, having allowed his men to recruit their strength and spirits after the fatigue of the recent battle, marched to Babylon, and then proceeded to occupy Susa. He next appeared before Persepolis, the ancient residence of the Persian monarchs, and set the palace on fire, in retaliation for the destruction of the temples in the Greek cities of Asia Minor by the Persians. Some say that the palace was fired at a banquet held by Alexander within its walls, but whether by design or accident is uncertain.

Darius, who had sought an asylum at Ecbatana, in Media, had collected another army, with which he intended to make a last effort. He was, however, prevented by Bessus, governor of Bactria, and Nabarzanes, a Persian nobleman, who entered into a conspiracy against him. The conspirators seized the person of the king, and binding him with golden chains, shut him up in a covered cart, and retreated precipitately towards Bactria. They intended, if Alexander pursued them, to deliver up the object of his resentment; or if they escaped the Macedonian conqueror, to murder Darius, and, usurping the imperial diadem, to renew the war. When Alexander was informed of the base designs of Bessus and Nabarzanes, he left the main body of his army under the care of Craterus, and advanced with a small body of light armed cavalry; and receiving intelligence that the Persian king was conveyed in a covered cart, and that the troops had acknowledged Bessus as their general, he hastened his march. As soon as the king of Macedon came within sight of the enemy, they immediately took to flight, and having discharged their darts at the unfortunate Persian monarch, left him weltering in his blood.

330  
B.C.

Thus died Darius III., in the fiftieth year of his age, and the sixth of his reign, and with him ended the Persian em-

pire, after it had existed 229 years. His temper was mild and pacific, his government peculiarly equitable, and his character unsullied by any of those vices to which most of his predecessors had been addicted.

On the death of their unfortunate prince, the Persian commanders submitted to the conqueror, and were reinstated in their former dignities and employments. Nabarzanes procured a pardon; but the traitor Bessus, who had fled into Bactria and assumed the title of king, was taken prisoner by Ptolemy, afterwards king of Egypt, about a year after, and put to death as a regicide.

After the dissolution or partition of the Macedonian empire, Persia passed under the dominion of the kings of Syria, until 250 B.C., when it became part of the Parthian empire, and remained so until about 230 A.D.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Persia by Alexander the Great..	B.C. 334	Destruction of the great city of Persepolis by fire .....	B.C. 331
Battle of the Granicus..	„ 334	Murder of Darius III. by Bessus and Nabarzanes, and end of the Persian empire .....	„ 330
Persians defeated in the battle of Issus .....	„ 333		
Persians again defeated in the battle of Arbela ..	„ 331		

#### ANCIENT KINGS OF PERSIA.

Cyrus the Great .....	B.C. 559	Xerxes II. ....	B.C. 425
Cambyses .....	„ 529	Sogdianus .....	„ 425
Smerdis (a usurper) .....	„ 522	Darius II. (Nothus) .....	„ 424
Darius I. (Hystaspes) ...	„ 521	Artaxerxes II. (Mnemon) ..	„ 405
Xerxes I. ....	„ 485	Artaxerxes III. (Ochus) ..	„ 359
Artabanus (a usurper) ...	„ 465	Arses .....	„ 338
Artaxerxes I. (Longimanus) ..	„ 464	Darius III. (Codomannus) ..	„ 336

## CHAPTER X.

### SYRIA AND THE SYRO-GREEK EMPIRE.

#### 1. ANCIENT SYRIA: ITS KINGS AND KINGDOMS.

2217 B.C. to 741 B.C.

THE ancient Syrians were descended from Shem, the son of Noah, and occupied a fertile tract of country, which lay be-



tween Mount Taurus on the north, the Euphrates on the east, Arabia Deserta and Palestine on the south, and Phœnicia and the Mediterranean on the west, and which extended from 33° to 38° of north latitude. Though anciently parcelled into several petty kingdoms, it was divided in later ages into four principal states, viz., Zobah, Damascus, Hamath, and Geshur.

The ancient Syrians were noted for their learning and arts, and rose at an early age to a high pitch of splendour and opulence. Their religion soon degenerated from that of their progenitors into gross idolatry. Their language became a distinct tongue so early as the time of the patriarch Jacob.

The state of Zobah was situated along the Euphrates, north of Damascus, and extending towards Aleppo. The kings of Zobah are noticed in the Bible as having been attacked and defeated in battle by Saul. These kings in all probability were the heads of the petty states of Syria, which had formed a coalition against Saul and the children of Israel, under Rehob, who was the actual king of Zobah. His son and successor, Hadarezer, was a powerful and ambitious prince, and remarkable for his unsuccessful battles with King David. The war terminated in the total defeat of his forces, and the destruction of his kingdom. It was at this period Toi, the king of Hamath, made submission to David, and became tributary to him, with the rest of Syria.

Zobah being thus completely crushed, Rezon, the son of Elialah, left his master Hadadezer, and gathered a band of men about him, by whose aid he seized on Damascus and made himself king of it in Solomon's time, causing infinite annoyance to the Israelites and their king. By the time of Asa, Syria had become an independent kingdom once more, and Benhadad, who then sat on the throne, formed an alliance with the Jewish king against Baasha, king of Israel. Benhadad II. had scarcely ascended the throne, when he resolved to prosecute the war against Israel, which his predecessor had commenced. Having, therefore, assembled an incredible number of infantry, cavalry, and charioteers, he marched against Samaria: but whilst Benhadad was carousing in his tent, Ahab, the king, with a select company of 232 young men, fell upon the Syrians, who were seized with a

1044  
B.C.

940  
B.C.

901  
B.C.

panic terror, and fled with the utmost precipitation. Benhadad was advised by his courtiers to levy another army, and to hazard a battle on even ground. He commenced with the advice, and a battle was fought, in which 100,000 Syrians were put to the sword, and 27,000 were crushed to death by the falling of the walls of Aphek. Benhadad was obliged to sue for peace to Ahab; but in the reign of Jehoram he again made war on Israel, and reduced Samaria, to which he had laid siege to the utmost straits. The Syrians, however, were seized one night with a sudden panic imagining they heard the approach of a large force, and fled abandoning their camp to the starving people of Samaria.

Benhadad was succeeded by Hazael, one of his generals, who obtained the crown by the murder of his benefactor, and who took and pillaged Jerusa-

836 B.C. lem, and subjugated Israel and Judah. His son, Benhadad III., suffered three successive defeats from King Jehoash, and lost all the territories which the Syrians had taken from Israel in his father's time.

Rezin, their last king, entered into a confederacy with Pekah, king of Israel, to dethrone Ahaz, king of Judah. Ahaz, however, obtained the assistance

741 B.C. of Tiglath-Pileser II., king of Assyria, who entered Damascus at the head of a formidable army, slew Rezin with the sword, and carried away all his subjects into captivity.

The small kingdom of Geshur is supposed to have been situated to the east of Jordan, north of Bashan and near Mount Hermon. Absalom took refuge with his grandfather, Talmai, king of Geshur, after the murder of his brother Amnon. It was therefore an independent state in David's time, as David and Talmai were connected by the marriage of the former to the latter's daughter Maachah.

From this time Syria was subject in turn to the Assyrians, Egyptians, Babylonians, and Persians, and, in 333 B.C., fell under the power of Alexander the Great, and became part of the Macedonian empire.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Abraham goes from Ur into Syria.....	B.C. 1921		Saul vanquishes the king of Zobah .....	B.C. 1067
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Hadadrezzar, king of Zobah, defeated by David .....	B.C. 1044	Hazael, king of Syria, attacks Israel and Judah .....	B.C. 884
Damascus becomes the head of Syria under Rezon .....	„ 975	Jehoash, king of Israel, defeats Benhadad III. ....	„ 836
Benhadad I. makes war on Israel .....	„ 940	Rezin leagues with Pekah, king of Israel, against Ahaz, king of Judah .....	„ 742
Benhadad II. defeated by Ahab .....	„ 901	Defeat of Rezin by Tig- lath-Pileser II., and annexation of Syria to Assyria .....	„ 741
Again defeated by Ahab with great loss ....	„ 900		
Siege of Samaria by Benhadad II. ....	„ 892		

## 2. THE NEW SYRIAN EMPIRE.—EARLY SYRO-GREEK KINGS.

323 B.C. to 223 B.C.

The death of Alexander the Great in the plenitude of his power put an end to the great empire which he had so rapidly conquered, and his vast territories were divided among his generals. In this partition Egypt fell to Ptolemy with Palestine and Cœle-Syria, while Antigonos had a great part of Asia Minor and northern Syria. In the war that ensued a new disposition was made, and Seleucus, another of Alexander's generals, received the province of Babylon while Antigonos got possession of Susiana. An attempt made by Antigonos to dispossess Seleucus of Babylon led to the formation of a league between Seleucus and Ptolemy (316 B.C.), and a fresh war with Antigonos, which resulted in leaving the distribution of territory much as it was before the war began, except that in addition to recovering Babylon, Seleucus obtained Media and assumed the title of king. From this period (312 B.C.), the era of the Seleucidæ dates; Seleucus, having firmly established his authority among the Babylonians, subjected to his new empire, Persia, Bactria, Hyrcania, and all the other provinces, formerly conquered by Alexander, on this side the Indus.

In 301 B.C. a fresh coalition was formed by Seleucus, Ptolemy, and Lysimachus, another of Alexander's generals, who had obtained Thrace, against Antigonos, whose possessions

in Asia were now only Asia Minor, Northern Syria,\* and Cyprus. He was defeated by the confederates in the battle of Ipsus and slain. Northern Syria, Cappadocia, and part of Phrygia fell to Seleucus, who founded Antioch and made it the metropolis of his kingdom.

301

B.C.

Ptolemy I. Soter, king of Egypt, by his first wife Eurydice had a son named Ptolemy Ceraunus, whom he disinherited, as it has been said, in favour of Ptolemy II. Philadelphus, his son by his second wife Berenice, and a daughter Arsinoe, who married Lysimachus, king of Thrace. Lysandra, the half-sister of Arsinoe, had married Agathocles, the eldest son of the Thracian king, and some unfortunate dissension having arisen between Arsinoe and Lysandra, the former prevailed on the old king to put Agathocles to death. Upon which, Lysandra, with her children and her brother Ptolemy Ce-

281

B.C.

raunus, sought the protection and assistance of Seleucus, who took the field against his old ally. Lysimachus crossed the Hellespont, and entered Asia Minor. He encountered the troops of Seleucus at Curo-

280

B.C.

pedion in Phrygia, and after an obstinate and a bloody conflict, Lysimachus was slain, and Seleucus left master of the field. However, Seleucus did not long enjoy his triumph, for he was treacherously murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, while preparing to cross into Europe for the purpose of subjugating Thrace and Macedonia.

Antiochus I. commenced his reign by prosecuting his claim to the sovereignty of Thrace and Macedonia, but ultimately gave it up in favour of Antigonus Gonatas, who married his half-sister Phila. His reign was further distinguished by a successful expedition against a body of Gauls, which had settled in Galatia. This procured him the surname of Soter, or Saviour. After this he became involved in an unsuccessful war with Eumenes, king of Pergamus. This monarch,

261

B.C.

after sentencing one of his sons to death for having fomented a rebellion, during his absence, and nominating his other son, Antiochus, to succeed him in the throne of Syria, died in the twentieth year of his reign.

\* Under the Syro-Greek empire, Syria was divided into three parts, viz., Syria Proper, Cœle-Syria, or the Hollow Syria, and Syria Palestina.

Antiochus II. on ascending the throne, assumed the surname of Theos, or God. He engaged in a war with Ptolemy II. Philadelphus, king of Egypt, but the strife was ended by his marriage to Berenice, Ptolemy's daughter, after divorcing his first wife Laodice. Arsaces, a valiant Parthian, roused to fury by the oppressive measures of Agathocles, governor of Parthia and the adjacent countries, excited a revolt, and eventually founded a new and formidable empire. About five years before the Parthian revolt, Theodotus, governor of Bactria, had thrown off his allegiance, and assumed the honours of royalty. Antiochus was poisoned by his wife Laodice, whom he had again received into favour. This woman placed on the royal couch a person, who, by personating the dying monarch, prevailed on the Syrian nobles to acknowledge Seleucus Callinicus, the son of Laodice, as their lawful sovereign, though the crown belonged to a male infant of Queen Berenice.

250

B.C.

246

B.C.

Seleucus II. Callinicus, on his ascending the throne, pursued the unfortunate Berenice and her son with such unrelenting hatred that he besieged them in an asylum, whither they had fled for refuge, and where they, with all their Egyptian attendants, were inhumanly massacred. Ptolemy III. Euergetes, king of Egypt, revenged the murder which he could not prevent by seizing the cruel Laodice, whom he condemned to death. Afterwards Seleucus found himself engaged in war with his own brother, Antiochus Hierax, whom he had offended by refusing him the sovereignty of Asia Minor. At length, after a dreadful effusion of blood, and many obstinate conflicts, Antiochus was totally defeated, and compelled to take refuge in an enemy's land, where he was murdered by a band of robbers. Afterwards Seleucus undertook an expedition against Parthia, and was taken prisoner by Arsaces, and died in captivity, through a fall from his horse.

226

B.C.

Seleucus III., the eldest son and successor of the deceased prince, was called, in derision of his mental and bodily weakness, Ceraunus, or the Thunderer. After a reign of three years he was poisoned by two of his chief officers, when marching against Attalus, king of Pergamus, who had seized the greater part of Asia Minor, and the crown placed on the head of his brother Antiochus,

223

B.C.

who, on account of his illustrious actions, was afterwards sur-named the Great.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Syria given to Anti-gonus .....	B.C. 323	Revolt of Bactria under Theodotus .....	B.C. 255
Seleucus becomes satrap of Babylon.....	„ 316	Revolt of Parthia under Arsaces .....	„ 250
Assumes title of King of Babylon and Media ...	„ 312	Death of Antiochus II. Theos, and accession of Seleucus II. Callinicus .....	„ 246
Battle of Ipsus.—Syria assigned to Seleucus...	„ 301	Death of Seleucus II. in captivity .....	„ 226
Murder of Seleucus by Ptolemy Ceraunus ...	„ 280	Death of Seleucus III. Ceraunus .....	„ 223
Accession of Antiochus II. Theos .....	„ 261		

#### 3. FROM ANTIOCHUS THE GREAT TO DEMETRIUS SOTER.

223 B.C. to 150 B.C.

Antiochus III. was scarcely settled on the throne of his ancestors before Alexander and Molo, two of his generals, who had been entrusted with the government of Persia and Media, revolted from their allegiance, and endeavoured to establish themselves as sovereigns in their respective districts. Antiochus marched against the insurgents in person, and defeated them; and the two generals, who were brothers, in order to elude the vengeance of the conqueror, killed themselves. Antiochus then began to make preparations for an expedition against Ptolemy, king of Egypt, who had taken Cœle-Syria and Palestine, and another against his uncle Achæus, who had usurped the sovereignty of Asia Minor. After a war of three years' duration, which was ended by the total defeat of Antiochus at Raphia, near Gaza, Cœle-Syria and Palestine were ceded to Ptolemy. During this war Achæus, the governor of Asia Minor, had declared the independence of his province; and, at the conclusion of the war with Ptolemy, Antiochus prepared to march against him.

Achæus defended himself in the city of Sardis for upwards of a year against two powerful armies, but was at length delivered up by the treachery of some Cretans, and expiated his treachery by his death.

The war in Asia Minor being thus terminated, Antiochus

made preparations for the reduction of the Eastern provinces which had shaken off the Syrian yoke. Accordingly he marched into Parthia, where he obtained some successes at first, but found it necessary at last to conclude a treaty with Arsaces, by which his independence was acknowledged. This was followed by a treaty with Euthydemus, the king of Bactria. Antiochus then marched into India, and returned home after re-establishing Syrian supremacy in the provinces of Arachosia, Drangiana, and Carmania with a reputation that began to be formidable to the powers of Europe as well as to those of Asia.

212

B.C.

205

B.C.

At the death of Ptolemy Philopater, Antiochus entered into an alliance with Philip, king of Macedon, for the purpose of depriving his successor, Ptolemy V. Epiphanes, of his dominions. The Syrian monarch, therefore, marched into Coele-Syria and Palestine, and reduced all those provinces, with their cities and dependencies. This conduct gave umbrage to the Romans, who, having undertaken to protect Epiphanes, ordered Philip and Antiochus to withdraw their forces from the newly-conquered provinces. Antiochus, however, proposed a treaty of marriage between his daughter Cleopatra and Epiphanes, which, as he promised to give up the conquered provinces by way of dowry to the young princess, was ratified without hesitation. In the following year Antiochus, asserting a right to Thrace by virtue of the conquest of Lysimachus by his ancestor Seleucus Nicator, began to rebuild the city of Lysimachia, which had been founded by Lysimachus, on the isthmus leading to the Thracian Chersonesus. The Romans ordered him to desist from attempting to settle in Europe, but Antiochus, finding that they confined themselves at the time to mere remonstrances, refused to comply with their demands, and began to think of war with Rome.

204

B.C.

198

B.C.

At this time the Carthaginian general Hannibal placed himself under the protection of Antiochus, and confirmed the king's resolution of making war upon the Romans. That able general traced out the plan of an attack to be made in conjunction with the Gauls, the Carthaginians, their African allies, and the discontented cities of Greece, whom the enemy of the Romans proposed to put in motion. He fixed the stations for the armies and fleets,

195

B.C.

with the proper points of support, and developed a general invasion of Italy, which would have greatly embarrassed the Romans had it been wholly adopted, and the operations been speedily commenced.

In the winter of 192 B.C., Antiochus, having enlisted the *Ætolians* and other Greeks in his cause, under the pretence of liberating Greece from Roman dominion, passed over into Thrace and established his head-quarters at *Demetrias*, in *Thessaly*. He was successful at first, but was defeated at *Thermopylæ* in the following year, and compelled to return into *Asia*. Subsequently one of his fleets, under the command of *Hannibal*, was defeated at the mouth of the *Eurymedon*, and another under *Polyxenidas* was almost destroyed in an action off the promontory of *Myonessus*. After this last disaster Antiochus did not observe his usual prudence, but hastily withdrew his forces from *Lysimachia* and the other cities of the *Hellespont*, and retired to *Sardis*, where he began to prepare for the defence of *Asia Minor*. At this time Antiochus had to contend with *Lucius Scipio*, afterwards called *Asiaticus* for his success in this war, and his brother, *Publius Scipio Africanus*, under whom the Romans had passed the *Hellespont* and entered *Asia*. The Syrian monarch was seized with terror when he saw himself attacked in the centre of his states, and his kingdom exposed to the fate of a battle. He offered terms of peace, but, as these were refused, he determined to give them battle at once, and drew up his forces near *Magnesia*.

The conflict commenced with an advance of the armed chariots, which Antiochus ordered to cut their way through the enemy's lines. These, however, were soon thrown into confusion by *Eumenes*, king of *Pergamus*, and the Roman cavalry bore down all before them. About 50,000 fell on the side of Antiochus in this engagement and the pursuit that followed. The victory of the Romans led to a disgraceful peace, in which Antiochus was obliged to resign his pretensions to Thrace, confine his authority to *Asia* to the countries east of *Mount Taurus* and the *Halys*, pay the Romans 15,000 *Æuboic talents* for the expenses of the war, deliver up *Hannibal* and others, and give twenty persons as hostages for his sincerity. The unfortunate *Carthaginian* poisoned himself, and Antiochus was killed soon after by the people of *Elymais*, at the head of the *Persian Gulf*, who were irritated to see the treasures of their temples carried

187

B.C.



away for paying the Romans. Ancient historians highly commend him for his humanity, clemency, and munificence.

On the death of his father, Seleucus III., surnamed Soter, ascended the throne, and though he retained the regal dignity upwards of eleven years, he made a very poor figure, on account of the miserable state to which the Syrian empire had recently been reduced. He was poisoned by Heliodorus, who placed the diadem on his own head, but who was obliged to resign the crown to Antiochus, brother of Seleucus.

**175**  
B.C.

Antiochus IV. assumed the name of Epiphanes, or the Illustrious; but that title was ill applied, for his conduct was rather suitable to a lunatic than a sovereign prince. A war broke out between Syria and Egypt, and Antiochus led his army into the centre of that kingdom, made himself master of Memphis, and took Ptolemy VI. Philometor prisoner. The Egyptians placed on the throne Philometor's younger brother, Ptolemy Physcon. Antiochus returned to Egypt to usurp the crown for himself, but Physcon and his sister Cleopatra obtained the mediation of the Romans, who interdicted the Syrian monarch from carrying on hostilities against Egypt, on pain of forfeiting their friendship. Antiochus, therefore, put Ptolemy Philometor in possession of the whole kingdom except Pelusium, which he craftily retained in his own hands, that he might enter Egypt at any opportunity. Philometor having consented to share the crown with his brother Physcon, Egypt was restored to its former tranquillity. Antiochus now entered Egypt for the fourth time, and openly avowed his intention of annexing Egypt to Syria; but the Romans compelled him to renounce all his pretensions and withdraw his army.

**170**  
B.C.

**168**  
B.C.

Antiochus having commenced a frightful persecution of the Jews in 168 B.C., endeavouring to compel them to renounce their religion, and conform to that of the Greeks, Judea revolted, and army after army sent thither by the Syrian king was defeated by the Jews under Judas Maccabeus and his brothers. The revolt of Judea was followed by outbreaks in Persia and Armenia, which were subdued by the king in person. The news of the defeat of his army in Judea threw him into so terrible a fit of

**165**  
B.C.

passion, that he went raving mad, and died in that condition shortly after.

This monarch left an infant son, named Antiochus Eupator, and a nephew called Demetrius, who was a hostage at Rome. On the death of his uncle, Demetrius applied to the senate for liberty, and reminded them of his indubitable title to the crown of Syria. The Romans, however, fearing that Demetrius, who was of an aspiring genius, and extraordinary abilities, might eventually become a powerful foe to the republic, declared in favour of the young Antiochus, who ascended the throne as Antiochus V. Soon after, Demetrius effected his escape from Rome, and spreading abroad a report that he was sent by the Romans to take possession of his hereditary kingdom, he was proclaimed king at Tripolis, received the voluntary submission of the cities and fortresses, and caused Eupator to be put to death.

Demetrius had no sooner established himself on the throne, than he redressed the grievances of the Babylonians, who gave him the surname of Soter, or Saviour. 162  
He effected a complete reconciliation with Rome; B.C.  
but having subsequently given umbrage to the Romans, the senate passed a decree in favour of a young man of low origin, called Balas, who pretended to be the son of Epiphanes, and in this character claimed the Syrian diadem. Thus countenanced by the Romans, and supplied with powerful succours from Egypt, Pergamus, and Cappadocia, Alexander advanced against Demetrius, who was defeated and slain by his competitor's troops, in the twelfth year of his reign.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Antiochus the Great .....	B.C. 223	Defeat of fleet of Antiochus at the Eurymedon and Myonessus...	B.C. 189
War with Ptolemy for Cœle-Syria and Palestine .....	" 220	Battle of Magnesia, and peace with Rome .....	" 188
Expedition against Parthia and Bactria .....	" 212	Death of Antiochus the Great .....	" 187
Return of Antiochus from the East .....	" 205	Accession of Antiochus IV. Epiphanes .....	" 175
Antiochus lays claim to Thrace .....	" 198	War with Egypt .....	" 170
War between Antiochus and the Romans .....	" 192	Persecution of the Jews and revolt of Judea...	" 168
		Outbreak in Persia, etc. ..	" 167

Death of Antiochus Epi- phanes, and accession of Antiochus V. Eupator B.C. 165	throned and murdered by Demetrius ..... B.C. 162
Antiochus Eupator de-	Alexander Balas usurps the crown ..... „ 150

## 4. THE LAST OF THE SELEUCIDÆ.

150 B.C. to 83 B.C.

Alexander, having by this victory made himself master of the whole Syrian empire, espoused Cleopatra, the daughter of Ptolemy, king of Egypt, and devoted his time to pleasure, while the affairs of state were entrusted to the management of a cruel and tyrannical minister, called Ammonius. Demetrius, however, the eldest of the deceased king's sons, attempted the recovery of his inheritance, and obtained possession of Cilicia. Alexander, distrusting the fidelity of the Syrians, invited to his assistance his father-in-law, the king of Egypt, who advanced to his relief at the head of a powerful army; but Ptolemy, asserting that a design had been formed against his own life by Alexander, gave his daughter (the wife of Alexander) in marriage to Demetrius, whom he promised to seat on the throne of Syria. Alexander being defeated soon after, by Ptolemy and Demetrius, escaped to Abas, in Arabia, where he was treacherously assassinated by an Arabian chieftain with whom he sought an asylum.

Demetrius II., having firmly established himself in the kingdom of his ancestors, assumed the name of Nicator, or "the Conqueror." He gave himself up entirely to pleasure at first, and imprudently left the whole care of the government to his ministers, who alienated the minds of the Syrians from their new king by a series of cruelties and oppressions. At length Tryphon, entertaining thoughts of seizing the crown, and having got Antiochus, the son of Alexander Balas, into his hands, arrived in Syria with the young prince, and laid claim to the crown as guardian and protector of Alexander's son. He was joined by multitudes of disaffected persons, who eagerly enlisted under his banners. An engagement ensued, in which Demetrius was overthrown, and compelled to take shelter within the walls of Seleucia; and the Antiochans declared for the conquerors,

and soon after placed the young prince on the throne as Antiochus VI.

Tryphon, having effected the first part of his design by investing Antiochus with the *name* of a king, conciliated the esteem of the Jewish people, who fought with irresistible fury on behalf of the new sovereign. However, Jonathan, prince of the Jews, was basely assassinated by the contrivance of

**144** Tryphon, and Antiochus was murdered. The traitor  
 B.C. then seized the diadem, and caused himself to be proclaimed king of Syria, in the room of his deceased pupil. Demetrius in the meanwhile had taken the field against the Parthians, over whom he obtained some advantages; but, being deluded by a treaty of peace, his person was seized, and all his troops were slaughtered. Afterwards Mithridates, king of Parthia, treated him with great kindness, and gave him the princess Rhodoguna in marriage. On receiving this intelligence, Cleopatra offered her interest and her hand to his brother, Antiochus Sidetes, the second

**138** son of Demetrius Soter. This prince no sooner ap-  
 B.C. peared, than most of Tryphon's forces abandoned their posts, and joined Antiochus, who proved completely victorious, and killed his rival in the city of Apamea.

Antiochus VII. being now established on the throne of his ancestors, led his troops against Phraates, king of Parthia, upon the plausible pretence of delivering his brother from captivity. He recovered all the provinces, except Parthia,

**128** which had originally belonged to the Syrian empire;  
 B.C. but whilst his troops were separated and put into winter quarters, the inhabitants of that country massacred them all in one day, and Antiochus perished in the general slaughter.

After being thrice defeated by Antiochus, Phraates had liberated Demetrius, and sent him with a body of troops into Syria; but on the news of the massacre, he dispatched a party of cavalry to bring him back. Demetrius, however, effected his escape, and recovered his crown. He imprudently took part in the quarrel between Ptolemy Physcon and his divorced queen, Cleopatra. Upon which the former raised up an impostor, called Alexander, afterwards called Zebinas, whom he furnished with an army to take possession of Syria, under the title of the son of Alexander Balas. The discontented Syrians, eager to shake off the yoke of Demetrius,

flocked to the stranger, and unanimously took up arms against their lawful sovereign, who, on suffering a total defeat in the neighbourhood of Damascus, was obliged to take to flight, and sought refuge in Tyre, where he was treacherously murdered. Upon the news of his death, Cleopatra, his first wife, was permitted to retain a small part of the kingdom ; and the rest devolved on Alexander II. Zebinas.

126

B.C.

Seleucus V., the eldest son of Demetrius Nicator, assumed the regal dignity, and was proclaimed in the provinces which adjoined to that part of Syria held by his mother. Cleopatra, fearing that he might revenge the murder of his father, to which she was supposed to be accessory, put him to death with her own hand, and recalled from Athens her other son, Antiochus, afterwards Antiochus VIII., who is generally designated by the surname of Grypus, from his aquiline nose, and whom she declared king of Syria, but reserved all the authority for herself.

125

B.C.

Ptolemy Physcon insisted that Zebinas should do homage to him for his new dominions, and pay an annual tribute to Egypt. Zebinas, however, refusing his obedience, Physcon gave the princess Tryphœna in marriage to Antiochus, and sent a powerful army into Syria. Zebinas was defeated and sent a prisoner to Antiochus VIII., who put him to death.

Cleopatra, perceiving that her son assumed the supreme authority, called to the crown another son she had by Antiochus Sidetes, and prepared a deleterious potion for the king ; but Grypus, being apprised of her design, compelled her to drink it herself, and thus preserved his own life by the sacrifice of a woman whose unparalleled crimes had been for many years the scourge of Syria.

During the space of eight years, Grypus swayed the sceptre in profound peace ; but at length, Antiochus Cyzicenus, his half-brother, contended with him for the sovereignty, and ultimately obliged him to divide the empire between them (112 B.C.). Antiochus IX. Cyzicenus reigned at Damascus over Cœle-Syria and Phœnicia, while Grypus retained Antioch and all the other provinces. Antiochus VIII., who was assassinated in 96 B.C., left four sons, Seleucus, Philip, Demetrius Eukæros, and Antiochus Dionysius, and was immediately succeeded by Seleucus. This king, Seleucus VI., surnamed Epiphanes Nicator, at-

117

B.C.

tacked Antiochus IX., and defeated him and slew him. He was driven in his turn into Cilicia, by Antiochus X., surnamed Eusebes, the son of Cyzicenus, and died at the siege of Mopsuestia, after a reign of seven months (95 B.C.).

From this point the crown of Syria was frequently changing hands. Antiochus X. retained the sovereignty until 88 A.C., when he was compelled to fly into Parthia by Philip, who had long maintained an aggressive warfare against him. He returned in 86 B.C., and an intestine strife raged for three

**83** years, when the Syrians bestowed the crown on  
B.C. Tigranes, king of Armenia, and the rival cousins  
quitted the kingdom to trouble it no more, for Eusebes died the same year in Cilicia. Tigranes was compelled to withdraw his troops in 69 B.C., in the course of his struggle with the Romans, and the crown was seized by Antiochus XI., surnamed Asiaticus, the son of Eusebes. He

**65** retained it for the space of four years, when Syria  
B.C. was reduced by Pompey to a Roman province, and the dynasty of the Seleucidæ was brought to an end, after a duration of 247 years.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Death of Alexander Balas, and accession of Demetrius II. Nicator .....	B.C. 146	Accession of Antiochus VIII. Grypus .....	B.C. 125
Usurpation of Tryphon at the death of Antiochus VI. ....	" 144	Partition of the kingdom between Antiochus VIII. Grypus and Antiochus IX. Cyzicenus .....	" 117
Accession of Antiochus VII. Sidetes .....	" 138	Assassination of Grypus .....	" 96
Restoration of Demetrius II. Nicator, after a long captivity in Parthia .....	" 128	The crown given by the Syrians to Tigranes, king of Armenia .....	" 83
Murder of Demetrius II. in Tyre .....	" 126	Accession of Antiochus XI. Asiaticus .....	" 69
		Syria reduced to a Roman province .....	" 65

#### THE SELEUCIDÆ, OR KINGS OF SYRIA.

Seleucus I. Nicator .....	B.C. 312	Antiochus III. the Great .....	B.C. 223
Antiochus I. Soter .....	" 280	Seleucus IV. Philopator .....	" 187
Antiochus II. Theos .....	" 261	Antiochus IV., Epiphanes .....	" 175
Seleucus II. Callinicus .....	" 246	Antiochus V. Eupator .....	" 164
Seleucus III. Ceraunus .....	" 226		

Demetrius I. Soter .....	B.C. 162	Antiochus IX. Cyzicenus, conjointly with preceding king .....	B.C. 117
Alexander I. Balas (usurper) .....	„ 150	Seleucus VI. Epiphanes Nicator .....	„ 95
Demetrius II. Nicator ..	„ 146	Antiochus X. Eusebes ..	„ 95
Antiochus VI. (usurper) ..	„ 144	Philippus .....	„ 88
Tryphon (usurper) .....	„ 144	Anarchy in Syria from ..	„ 86
Antiochus [VII. Sidetes ..	„ 137	Tigranes, king of Armenia .....	„ 83
Demetrius II. Nicator (restored) .....	„ 128	Antiochus XI. Asiaticus ..	„ 69
Seleucus V. ....	„ 126		
Antiochus VIII. Grypus ..	„ 125		

5. PETTY KINGDOMS FORMED IN VARIOUS PARTS OF ASIA  
DURING THE REIGNS OF THE SELEUCIDÆ, ETC.

ATROPATENE.

That part of Media which lay between Armenia and the Caspian Sea was defended, on the downfall of the Persian monarchy, against the Macedonians, by Atropatus, who transmitted it to his posterity under the name of Media Atropatia, or Atropatene. Subsequently, it was subject to the Parthians for many years.

BACTRIA, OR BACTRIANA.

Bactria, which now forms the south-eastern part of Turkestan, and is now called Balkh, was anciently a large, fruitful, and populous country; and was bounded on the north by the river Oxus, on the east by Asiatic Scythia, and on the south by Mount Paropamisus, now the Hindoo Koosh Mountains. The inhabitants were a brave and martial people, who were constantly engaged in war, and enemies to every species of luxury. The Greek kingdom of Bactria was founded by Theodotus in 255 B.C., when he threw off allegiance to Antiochus II. of Syria. His successor, Theodotus II., was deposed in 221 B.C. by Euthydemus, who was defeated by Antiochus III. in 207 B.C. It rose to its greatest prosperity under Eucratides I., who ascended the throne in 181 B.C., and in 168 B.C. added part of India to his dominions. He was assassinated by his son Eucratides II., in 143 B.C. Eighteen years after Bactria was invaded and subdued by the Parthians.

KINGS OF BACTRIA.

Theodotus I. ....	B.C. 255	Menander .....	B.C. 196
Theodotus II. ....	„ 245	Eucratides I. ....	„ 181
Euthydemus .....	„ 221	Eucratides II. ....	„ 143
Demetrius .....	„ 200		

## EDESSA, OR OSROENE.

The province of Osroëne, a mountainous district in the north-west of Mesopotamia, the Padan-aram of the early patriarchs, was situated between Mount Masius and the Chaboras on the east, and the Euphrates on the west. It became independent of Syria in 137 B.C. under Abgarus, which name all its kings bore. One of them who lived in the time of our Saviour is said to have sent a letter to him. A translation of it is given by Eusebius. It was taken by Trajan in 102 A.D., but its princes sat on the throne until 216 A.D., when it was made a Roman colony.

## EMESA.

The affairs of Syria being disordered by the contentions of the Seleucidæ, Sampsiceramus, an Arabian, seized on the city of Emesa, which was situated on the Orontes, between Apamea and Laodicea Cabiosa, and assuming the regal title, transmitted the sovereignty to his posterity. The Arabians, under the name of Ituræans, possessed themselves of this little territory.

## ADIABENE.

Adiabene, which was the principal province of Assyria, was bounded on the north by Calachene, on the east by Apolloniatis, on the south by Sittacene, and on the west by the Tigris. It is celebrated by the ancients for its luxuriant fertility, and was finely watered by the rivers Adiaba and Diaba, from which it is supposed to have derived its name. Its erection into a kingdom resulted from the intestine quarrels of the Seleucidæ, and was so prudently established as to resist the utmost subsequent exertions of Syria. The same race of sovereigns continued till the reign of Sapor II., King of Persia, who subdued Adiabene.

## CHARACENE.

Characene, which was the most southern part of Susiana, was situated on the Persian Gulf, between the Eulæus and Tigris, and was seized by Pasines, the son of Sogdonacus, king of the neighbouring Arabs, during the troubles of Syria, and erected into a kingdom.



## ELYMAIS.

Elymais, a province of Persia, situated between the rivers Oroates and Eulæus, was anciently divided into three districts, viz., Gabiene, Mesabatene, and Carbiana. The inhabitants were a powerful and warlike people, inured to every species of hardship, and capable of defending their liberty against a formidable enemy. They were never subjugated either by the Syro-Macedonian or Parthian monarchs.

## COMMAGENE.

This little kingdom was seized by some of the princes of the Seleucid family, during their intestine divisions; for in the reign of Antiochus the Great, it was subject to the crown of Syria. Vespasian deposed him, and again reduced his kingdom to a Roman province in 72 A.D. Pompey permitted its king, Antiochus I., to retain the government when he visited Syria in 69 B.C. It was reduced to a Roman province in 14 A.D., but Caligula subsequently restored it to its last king, Antiochus IV.

## CHALCIDENE.

During the contentions of the Seleucidæ, Ptolemy, the son of Mennæus, seized on this fertile and pleasant province, which he erected into a separate kingdom. Being situated at the foot of Mount Lebanon, its position often rendered it the theatre of the wars between the kings of Syria, Damascus, Cele-Syria, Judea, and Egypt.

## CHAPTER XI.

## THE PARTHIAN MONARCHY.

250 B.C. to 226 A.D.

## 1. THE PARTHIAN KINGS FROM ARSACES I. TO MITHRIDATES III.

PARTHIA, a small district situated near the south-eastern corner of the Caspian Sea, and now forming the chief part of the modern Persian province of Khorasan, was bounded on the north-west by Hyrcania, on the north-east by Margiana, on

the south-east by Aria, on the south by Sarangia and Sagatha, districts north of the desert, now called the desert of Iran, which lay between them and Carmania, and on the west by the country of the Mardi.

The ancient Parthians were originally a tribe of Scythians, who, being expelled from the land of their nativity, took up their abode in this part of Asia. They were a strong and warlike people, and accustomed, from their infancy, to the exercises of horsemanship and archery. They were exceedingly strict in martial discipline, and abstemious in diet: but they paid no attention to agriculture and trade; and their morals were depraved. Their religious principles were much the same as those of the Persians. Their government was an absolute and unlimited monarchy.

Arsaces I., the founder of the Parthian monarchy, assumed the regal dignity in the time of Antiochus II. Theos, 250 king of Syria, and acted with such prudence, that B.C. he not only preserved his new dignity against the force of Syria, but laid the foundation of an empire, which afterwards counterbalanced the overgrown power of the Romans. It is said that a quarrel with Pherecles, or Agathocles, the Greek governor of the country under the Syrian king, on account of an insult offered to his brother Tiridates, led Arsaces to raise a rebellion against him in 256 B.C., when the governor was compelled to quit the country. In 250 B.C. he took the title of king. Seleucus Callinicus attempted to recover the country, but was taken prisoner by the Parthians, and died in captivity. This event happened about 237 B.C., in the reign of his successor, Arsaces II. It is improbable that Arsaces II. was the son of Arsaces I., and it is agreed by the best authorities that his brother Tiridates succeeded him under this title, and reigned about thirty-three years. This is uncertain, however, owing to the obscurity which veils the origin and growth of the Parthian empire, and the reigns of the early Parthian kings. Arsaces II. is said to have died 214 B.C., after a reign of thirty-three years. The latter part of his reign was chiefly spent in the internal organization of his kingdom.

On the death of Arsaces II., the government devolved on his son, Artabanus I., or Arsaces III., who engaged in a struggle with Antiochus the Great, brought on through an attempt made by the Parthian king to add Media to his

dominions. The result of the war was so far favourable to Artabanus, that Antiochus acknowledged the independence of Parthia. This took place about 206 B.C. He was succeeded by his son, Priapatius, or Arsaces IV., who died 205 B.C., and bequeathed the crown in his turn to his eldest son, Phraates, called Arsaces V. This last prince subdued the Mardi, a warlike people of the east. He left the kingdom to his brother Mithridates I., or Arsaces VI., whose intrepid bravery, sweetness of disposition, and insatiable thirst of glory, rendered him peculiarly dear to his warlike subjects. He is said to have reduced Bactria, Persia, Media, Elymais, and several other countries, and carried his victorious arms into India, even beyond the boundaries of Alexander's conquests. He afterwards made himself master of Babylonia and Mesopotamia; and his reign is regarded as the epoch of the Parthian grandeur. Mithridates was also an able legislator, as well as a great warrior. He conquered Demetrius Nicator, king of Syria, in 138 B.C., and kept him in Parthia for many years in a state of honourable captivity, and gave him his daughter Rhodogune in marriage.

Mithridates I. died about 136 B.C., and was succeeded by his son, Phraates II., in whose reign Parthia was invaded by Antiochus Sidetes (129 B.C.), who lost his life in his chivalrous attempt to annex the country once more to Syria. Phraates II., dying about 127 B.C., was succeeded by his uncle, Artabanus II., a son of Priapatius. The chief event of his reign was a war with the Scythians, in which he lost his life about 124 B.C., after a short reign of three years. He was succeeded by his son, Mithridates II., called the Great, who, after bringing the Scythian war to an end, undertook a successful expedition against Armenia, in which he compelled that country to make some important concessions to Parthia. In the latter part of his reign, however, Armenia made reprisals on Parthia, and her king, between 93 and 83 B.C., took Upper Mesopotamia from her rival.

During this war Mithridates died (89 B.C.). It is supposed that he was succeeded by a king called Mnasciras, after whom came Sanatruces about 76 B.C. In his reign the contest in Asia Minor between the Romans and the kings of Armenia and Pontus, namely, Tigranes and Mithridates VI., called the Great, was at its height, and although both sides sought the assistance of Parthia, the king resolutely abstained from taking

any part in the Mithridatic war. His son and successor, Phraates III., who came to the throne about 68 B.C., did not adopt his father's policy, but entered into an alliance with Rome in 66 B.C., undertaking to invade Armenia if the Romans would guarantee the restoration of Upper Mesopotamia to Parthia. Phraates III. duly performed his part of the contract, but Pompey gave the western part of Mesopotamia to the king of Armenia, against whom both the Romans and Parthians had been fighting. Hard words, mingled with threats and menaces, followed on all sides, but ultimately an arrangement was made which satisfied the rival Asiatic monarchs, and peace was restored.

Pompey left Asia in 62 B.C., and two years after Phraates was assassinated by his sons Mithridates and Orodes, and succeeded by the former. Mithridates III. succeeded in recovering Gordyène, as the western part of Upper Mesopotamia was called, from the Armenians, but his severity caused the Parthian nobles to place his brother Orodes on the throne in his stead, and to give him the subordinate position of governor of Media. Civil war was provoked shortly after by an attempt of Mithridates to recover supreme power in Parthia, but this essay to regain the throne only ended in his defeat and death about 55 B.C., when Orodes became undisputed king of Parthia.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Arsaces raises the standard of revolt against Syria .....	B.C. 236	death of the Parthian king, Artabanus IV....	B.C. 124
Assumes the title of king as Arsaces I., about...	„ 230	Mithridates II., called the Great, invades Armenia, about .....	„ 120
Tiridates, or Arsaces II., defeats Seleucus Callinicus .....	„ 237	Attack on Parthia made by Armenia, about ...	„ 93
Invasion of Parthia by Antiochus the Great ..	„ 212	Death of Mithridates II. before the close of Armenian war, about ..	„ 89
Independence of Parthia acknowledged by Antiochus .....	„ 206	First treaty of alliance between Rome and Parthia .....	„ 66
Invasion of Parthia by Demetrius Nicator.— He is taken prisoner...	„ 138	Assassination of Phraates III. by his sons Mithridates and Orodes ...	„ 60
Invasion of Parthia by Antiochus Sidetes ...	„ 129	Civil war in Parthia terminated by the execution of Mithridates III.	„ 55
War with Scythia, and			

## 2. FROM ORODES I. TO ARTABANUS IV., THE LAST OF THE ARSACIDÆ.

Orodes I. had not occupied the throne of Parthia a year when he was called on to make preparations for a Roman invasion which had been projected by the triumvir Marcus Licinius Crassus, who had just become proconsul of Syria. This war was attended with a vast effusion of blood, and proved extremely disastrous both to the Parthians and the Romans. At length, however, a decisive battle was fought at Charrhæ, in which the Romans were totally defeated. Thousands perished during the retreat, and Crassus himself was killed in an attempt of the Parthians to get possession of his person, under pretence of a conference. His head 53  
 was sent to Orodes, who, in derision of his well- B.C.  
 known avarice, is said to have poured molten gold into his mouth. The Parthian king took no immediate measures to attempt to drive the Romans out of Syria, but waited until 51 B.C. before he sent his son Pacorus into that country at the head of a large force. Nothing of importance was done, and Pacorus was eventually recalled in the following year.

No fresh collision took place between Rome and Parthia for some years. Julius Cæsar was meditating a Parthian war at his death in 44 B.C., and his murderers obtained a body of horse from Orodes, which took part in the battle of Philippi. The civil war which was then raging among the Romans seems to have given the Parthian king an idea of turning their dissensions to his own advantage. Syria was invaded by Pacorus and speedily reduced, Antioch was taken, and Antigonus placed on the throne of Judæa instead of Hyrcanus, who was deposed and carried prisoner into Parthia, after having had his ears cut off. The losses of the Romans were ultimately retrieved by Marc Antony, whose lieutenant Ventidius recovered Syria in 39 B.C., and compelled Pacorus to withdraw across the Euphrates. Pacorus recrossed the river to renew the contest for Syria in the following year, but was defeated by Ventidius, and fell in the engagement.

The death of his son overwhelmed Orodes with grief, and he appointed Phraates his successor, and admitted him at the same time to a participation of the 36  
 supreme authority. Phraates no sooner attained to B.C.  
 this height of power than he caused all his brothers to be put

to death, and attempted to dispatch Orodes also by giving him a potion of hemlock ; but that proving ineffectual, he smothered him in his bed, and similarly put to death the chief of the Parthian nobility, his eldest son, and the other branches of the royal family.

To elude the vengeance of this barbarian, many of the Parthian nobles emigrated into Syria, and prevailed on Marc Antony to invade their unhappy kingdom. The Romans, however, were so extremely fatigued by wearisome marches, and so frequently harassed by the enemy, that they were reduced to the most pitiable extremities, and narrowly escaped destruction. The Parthian monarch continuing to exercise

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B.C.

the most wanton cruelties upon his own subjects, the nobles entered into a conspiracy, and, chasing him from the country, conferred the sovereignty on Tiridates, one of their own body. Phraates, however, returned, and defeating his rival in a pitched battle by the aid of the Scythians, recovered his paternal inheritance. At

2

B.C.

length this tyrant was poisoned by his wife, that her son Phraataces might ascend the throne. The only points worthy of notice during his reign, beyond those that have been already mentioned, are the surrender of the Roman standards taken from Crassus to Augustus in 20 B.C., in order to escape war and save his throne, and the sending his four sons to Rome to be educated.

Phraataces had scarcely assumed the diadem when his subjects, resolving to revenge the crime to which he had been accessory, rose in arms, and placed on the throne one Orodes, who belonged to the family of the Arsacidæ. This prince, however, exhibited such a savage and tyrannical disposition that his reign was suddenly terminated by assassination. On the death of Orodes II., the Emperor Augustus was requested by the Parthians to send one of the sons of Phraates, who had been educated at Rome, to assume the government. Ac-

16

A.D.

cordingly he sent them Vonones, who affected the Roman dress and manners so much that the Parthians grew weary of him, and persuaded Artabanus, king of Media Atropatene, to drive him from the throne. Vonones at this time was made king of Armenia by the Armenians, but did not long retain the crown. After being twice dethroned and replaced, in 36 A.D. and 40 A.D., through conspiracies at home produced by his severity, Artabanus died

in 42 A.D., and was succeeded by his son Vardanes, who made war upon Izates, king of Adiabene, who had greatly assisted in restoring Artabanus to the throne of Parthia, after his second expulsion from it. This was done because Izates refused to give his assent to a project formed by Vardanes of conquering Armenia, which would have at once involved Parthia and her tributary states, of which Adiabene's was one, in war with Rome. The war with Izates was brought to a hasty termination by a revolt of the Parthian nobles, who caused Vardanes to be assassinated, and bestowed the crown on his brother Gotarzes.

This king had no sooner obtained the sovereignty than he began to exercise every species of cruelty upon his subjects. His reign, however, was short, and he **46**  
 was succeeded by Vonones, governor of Media, who **A.D.**  
 was in some way connected with the family of the Arsacidæ. On the death of this last prince the government devolved on his son Volagases, who maintained a bloody war against the Romans on account of the crown of Armenia, which he had bestowed on his brother Tiridates. This prince, after several vicissitudes, retained the crown of Armenia, after having done homage to Nero for it as his superior. It is supposed that Volagases I. died about 78 A.D., but that, during the latter part of his reign, the empire was not altogether under his rule, but that another king ruled in Hyrcania, where a successful revolt had taken place about 58 A.D. Volagases I. was succeeded by Pacorus, who is said by some writers to have been his son. Of this prince little is recorded in history.

Chosroes, the brother of Pacorus, succeeded him, and soon found himself involved in war with Rome. Pacorus had invaded Armenia about 100 B.C., and placed on the throne of that country his son Exedares. To revenge this insult, Trajan, after the conclusion of the Dacian war, marched into the East, recovered Armenia, made himself master **114**  
 of Mesopotamia, pursued his route to Babylon and **A.D.**  
 Ctesiphon, and, assembling the principal lords of Parthia, bestowed their crown on Parthamaspatēs, a prince connected with the family of the Arsacidæ. On the retreat of Trajan, however, the Parthians recalled Chosroes, **116**  
 and chased Parthamaspatēs from the throne; and **A.D.**  
 on Trajan's death, in the following year, Assyria and Mesopotamia were given up to Chosroes by Hadrian, and

the Roman troops withdrawn to the west bank of the Euphrates. After a very long reign, Chosroes was succeeded by

**130**

A.D.

Volagases II., who is said by some to have been his son, but by others is supposed to have been reigning over some part of eastern or northern Parthia from the accession of Pacorus, and to have obtained the whole kingdom at the death of Chosroes. His reign was marked by no event of importance, and at his death in 149 A.D. his son, Volagases III., ascended the vacant throne. This monarch invaded Armenia in 161 A.D., and placed Tigranes on the throne in room of Soæmus, the vassal king acknowledged and supported by Rome. This led to a war with Rome, and Soæmus was replaced, and the Parthians defeated and driven across the Euphrates in 163 A.D. The Roman general Avidius Cassius conquered Mesopotamia and entered Media. Western Mesopotamia was surrendered to Rome, and two years after the war was brought to a close, though not before the Romans had suffered severely from a pestilence which had broken out in Babylon, and which the army carried with it into Italy on its return. Volagases III. died in 191 A.D., and was succeeded by his son Volagases IV. This prince invaded Western Mesopotamia, and massacred the Roman garrisons in that country (196 A.D.); and the Roman Emperor Severus immediately marched against him to punish him for his temerity. Ctesiphon, the Parthian capital, on the Tigris, was taken (197 A.D.), and Volagases compelled to fly. The result of the war was the loss of Adiabene to Parthia. The king survived his defeat, and retained his crown for some years, as he did not die until 209 A.D.

After the death of Volagases IV. the accession to the throne was disputed by his two sons, and the empire seems to have been divided between them, Artabanus IV. becoming supreme in the western provinces, and Volagases V. in the eastern districts. A civil war ensued, but about 215 A.D. the former acquired the ascendancy, and was acknowledged by the Romans as the king of Parthia. Hardly had he established himself in the kingdom when the Emperor Caracalla, desirous of signalizing himself against the Parthians, sent am-

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A.D.

bassadors to demand his daughter in marriage. This was readily granted, and the king, being informed that the emperor was coming to solemnize the nuptials, went out to meet him, with the chief of the



Parthian nobility, all unarmed, and habited in splendid dresses. This peaceable train no sooner approached the Roman troops than they were attacked with the utmost fury, and Artabanus himself was compelled to save his life by a precipitate flight. On account of this exploit, the base Caracalla assumed the surname of Parthicus. Artabanus swore irreconcilable hatred to the perfidious emperor, and inspired the whole nation with the same spirit of vengeance. An army was hastily gathered together, and Artabanus was already in the field when Caracalla was murdered (217 A.D.). His successor Macrinus, however, sent a herald to acquaint the incensed Parthian with the death of Caracalla, and to propose terms of peace; but the Parthian king's demands were more than the Romans could bring themselves to grant, and the contending forces met at Nisibis. A battle ensued, which lasted for three days; the Romans were totally defeated, and Macrinus was compelled to purchase peace at a heavy price.

Soon after this (220 A.D.) the weakness of the Parthian monarch, after the struggles and internal dissensions caused by rebellions of members of the royal family against the king, inspired Ardshir, or Artaxerxes, the tributary king or governor of Persia under the Parthians, to attempt the recovery of the sovereign power. He raised a numerous body of adherents, and after three great battles Artabanus was defeated, and fell on the field of battle. Thus was the empire restored to the Persians, after they had been subject to the princes of Parthia for the space of 475 years. Ardshir was the grandson of a Persian named Sassan, and the founder of the dynasty of the Sassanidæ, which was so called from the name of his grandfather.

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A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Parthia by Crassus.—Romans defeated at Carrhæ .....	B.C.	53	Surrender of the ensigns taken from Crassus to Augustus .....	B.C.	20
Syria occupied by the Parthians under Pacorus .....	„	40	Artabanus, king of Media Atropatene, called to the throne of Parthia .....	A.D.	16
Syria recovered by the Romans under Ventidius .....	„	39	Tiridates placed on the throne of Armenia by Volagases I. ....	„	54
Renewed invasion of Syria by Pacorus.—His defeat and death .....	„	38	New war with Rome .....	„	62
			Invasion of Armenia by Pacorus .....	„	100

Trajan invades Parthia, and takes Mesopotamia .....	A.D. 114	Battle of Nisibis, and defeat of the Romans .....	A.D. 217
Recovery of Mesopotamia by Volagases IV. ....	„ 196	Rebellion of Ardshir, or Artaxerxes, king of Persia .....	„ 220
Invasion of Parthia, and occupation of Adiabene by Severus.....	„ 197	Defeat and death of Artabanus IV.—The Parthian empire brought to an end .....	„ 226
Caracalla's treacherous attempt on Parthia ...	„ 215		

#### THE ARSACIDÆ, OR KINGS OF PARTHIA.

All the kings of Parthia assumed the name of Arsaces; the Roman numeral prefixed to each name denotes his number under this title.

I. Arsaces .....	B.C. 256	XVII. Orodes II. (?)	A.D. 4
II. Tiridates .....	„ 247	XVIII. Vonones I. (?)	„ 10
III. Artabanus I. ....	„ 214	XIX. Artabanus III.	„ 16
IV. Priapatus .....	„ 196	XX. Vardanes .....	„ 42
V. Phraates I. ....	„ 181	XXI. Gotarzes .....	„ 46
VI. Mithridates I. ....	„ 174	XXII. Vonones II. ....	„ 51
VII. Phraates II. ....	„ 136	XXIII. Volagases I. ....	„ 52
VIII. Artabanus II. ....	„ 127	XXIV. Pacorus.....	„ 78
IX. Mithridates II. ....	„ 124	XXV. Chosroes .....	„ 108
X. Mnasciras (?).....	„ 89	XXVI. Volagases II. ....	„ 130
XI. Sanatruces .....	„ 76	XXVII. Volagases III.	„ 149
XII. Phraates III. ....	„ 68	XXVIII. Volagases IV.	„ 191
XIII. Mithridates III. ....	„ 60	XXIX. Volagases V. }	„ 209
XIV. Orodes I. ....	„ 55	XXX. Artabanus IV. }	
XV. Phraates IV. ....	„ 37	Artabanus IV. sole king.....	„ 216
XVI. Phraataces.....	„ 2		

The successions of the kings and the dates of accession, as given in Rawlinson's "Sixth Great Oriental Monarchy," have been followed closely in the above brief account of the Parthian monarchy.

## CHAPTER XII.

### THE PERSIAN EMPIRE UNDER THE SASSANIDÆ.

226 A.D. to 652 A.D.

#### 1. FROM ARTAXERXES I. TO HORMISDAS III.

IMMEDIATELY after the subversion of the Parthian empire, Artaxerxes ascended the throne, assumed the pompous title of King of kings, and asserted his right to all the provinces of

Parthia which were now under the authority of Roman governors. He sent ambassadors to Rome, who, being admitted to an audience of the emperor, addressed him as follows:—"The great king, Artaxerxes, commands the Romans and their sovereigns to evacuate Syria and all Asia Minor, and to restore to the Persians all the countries on this side of the *Ægean* and Pontic Seas, which they claim in right of lawful inheritance." This insolent demand roused the indignation of the Emperor Alexander Severus, who, according to one account, attacked and defeated Artaxerxes, and wrested from him several of his provinces. Another and more reliable story is that the Romans were defeated by Artaxerxes, but that the Persians were so much weakened by the conflict that Artaxerxes did not dare to follow the Romans in their retreat beyond the confines of his own dominions. After swaying the sceptre with great reputation for the space of fourteen years, Artaxerxes, or Ardashir I., as he is called by Persian writers, resigned the crown to his son Sapor, or Shah-poor I.

Sapor, who was equally famous for his personal strength and mental abilities, was of a fierce, cruel, and untractable disposition. His dominions were invaded by the Emperor Gordian III. about 243 A.D., when Mesopotamia was recovered from the Persians. Subsequently to this Sapor conquered Armenia, expelled the Romans from Charrhæ and Nisibis, and, forcing them back to the west of the Euphrates, regained possession of Mesopotamia. He was then attacked by the Emperor Valerian, whom he took prisoner, and, having treated him with unparalleled indignity, caused him to be flayed alive, as the story goes, and hung up his skin in a Persian temple. Sapor then marched into Syria and Cilicia, took Antioch, and even entered Asia Minor; but in his retreat the army experienced heavy losses from the repeated assaults of the Arab and Syrian cavalry of Odenathus, the ruler of Palmyra (262 A.D.). Sapor, after a reign of twenty-two years, was assassinated by some of the nobles of his court, and was succeeded by his son Hormisdas, or Hormouz.

This prince was of a pacific disposition, and, refusing to interfere in the affairs of the Romans, died in peace, after a reign of one year and ten days. His son, Varanes I., called by the Persians Bahram I., and

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A.D.

258

A.D.

260

A.D.

272

A.D.

273

A.D.

surnamed "the Beneficent," enjoyed the regal dignity about four years, without being disturbed by the Romans, or attempting to extend the limits of his empire, and died in 277 B.C.

Varanes II. was a spiritless and unwarlike prince. The

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A.D.

Emperor Carus invaded Persia in his reign, and it was in vain that Varanes resorted to negotiations to stop his progress. Seleucia and Ctesiphon were taken by Carus, when he died through being struck by lightning in his tent (283 A.D.), as it is said, and the Romans then retired. Towards the latter part of his reign, Tiridates, the rightful king of Armenia, who had been brought up at Rome, returned to his native country, in consequence of the people revolting against the Persians. A struggle ensued, in which neither side seemed to have gained any decided advantage. The king died, and his sons Varanes III. and Narses, or Narsi, commenced a civil war for the crown.

The eldest son of Varanes II. occupied the throne, if he

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A.D.

may be considered to have reigned at all, for four months, and his supporters being defeated, the tiara was seized by his brother Narses, a prince of great abilities and resolution. He reduced several places of importance in Mesopotamia, but his progress was checked by Galerius, who defeated him in two engagements, and followed him to the centre of his own kingdom. The Persian, however, had the address to retrieve his credit by a successful attack, and effectually revenged his recent losses; but Gale-

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A.D.

rius, obtaining the command of another army, hastened to expiate his disgrace, and completely defeated Narses, who was obliged to conclude a dishonourable peace, and surrender Mesopotamia, Kurdistan, and other Persian provinces. He died in the ninth year of his reign (303 A.D.), and was succeeded by his son Hormisdas II., who, according to the Persian historians, began to reign with cruelty and oppression, but afterwards rendered himself dear to his subjects by his just and generous conduct. He died just before the birth of his son Sapor II., who was proclaimed immediately after he was born (310 B.C.).

Sapor II. was a zealous asserter of the dignity of the Persian crown, and endeavoured to unite all the provinces of the ancient empire under his authority. At the instigation of the magi, he commenced a violent persecution against the

**Christiana.** He invaded Yemen in 326 A.D., and then formed a scheme for the elevation of himself and his successors to the supreme dominion of the East. The disorders which took place in the Roman empire, in the beginning of his reign, gave him an opportunity of re-annexing to his own dominions those provinces which had been wrested from his predecessors. He began to renew the old struggle with Rome in 337 A.D., and besieged Nisibis, in Mesopotamia, unsuccessfully in 338, 346, and 350 A.D. He defeated the Romans under Constantius II. at Singara in 348 A.D. The war was continued for many years, negotiations for peace, which were attempted more than once, proving fruitless, and in 358 Sapor invaded Mesopotamia and took Amida, and in the following year Singara and Bezabde.

Julian had no sooner obtained possession of the Roman empire, than he determined to crush the power of Persia. He, therefore, marched into the dominions of Sapor, but being obliged to abandon his intention of laying **363** siege to Ctesiphon, he determined to retire to the **A.D.** Tigris, on which he had a fleet of transports laden with provisions. At this juncture he was joined by a Persian nobleman, who advised him to burn his fleet, and return home northwards through Assyria by a safe route, which he would point out to him. Julian imprudently followed the advice, and thus led his forces into the most imminent danger. His troops were soon surrounded by the whole Persian army, and having struggled for some time with the intense heat, want of provisions, and scarcity of water, they were suddenly attacked by the greater part of the Persian cavalry, who fought with great resolution, and continued the combat till Julian was mortally wounded. Sapor improved the opportunity, and obtained an advantageous peace of the new Emperor Jovian. He afterwards occupied Armenia and Iberia (366 A.D.), but did not long retain the former.

This restless and ambitious monarch was succeeded by a prince called Artaxerxes I., who occupied the throne to the prejudice of the rightful heir. He lived in **381** amity with the Romans, and enjoyed the regal dig- **A.D.** nity about four years, when Sapor III., the son of Sapor II., recovered his dominions. He was killed, whether by accident or design it is uncertain, by the fall of his tent, after a reign of rather more than five years. Varanes IV. succeeded his

brother Sapor III., and governed his subjects with harshness for about eleven years, when he was shot with an arrow by someone who escaped discovery.

Isdigertes I., or Yezdijerd I., the son of Varanes IV., is said to have been a cruel and tyrannical monarch. **401** He reconquered Armenia in 412 A.D., and reigned about twenty-one years. He was succeeded by his son Varanes V. In his reign the indiscreet zeal of a Christian, who set fire to a Persian temple, renewed the

**421** war with the Romans (422 A.D.). The Persian monarch obtained the assistance of the Saracens, and, notwithstanding the defeats which he experienced from the Romans, he rendered even victory disadvantageous to the enemy. The Christians having performed some disinterested acts of benevolence and charity, Varanes granted them many important favours. He was excessively fond of hunting, and died, after a reign of twenty-three years, by falling into a pit, out of which he could not get, and where his body was found after life was extinct. According to the Persian writers he was succeeded (444 A.D.) by his son Isdigertes II., surnamed "the Soldier's Friend," who carried on a war with the Greeks

**462** of the Eastern empire, and died, after a reign of eighteen years, famous for his bravery and wisdom. He left the crown to his second son, Hormisdas III., who was dethroned by his brother Peroses, or Firouz, after a reign of one year.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of the reign of Ardshir I., or Artaxerxes.....	A.D. 226	Invasion of Yemen by Sapor II.....	A.D. 326
Annexation of Mesopotamia to Persia by Sapor I. ....	" 258	War with Rome.—First siege of Nisibis.....	" 338
Capture and execution of the Roman Emperor Valerian by Sapor ..	" 260	Defeat of the Romans under Constantius II. at Singara .....	" 348
Invasion of Persia by the Emperor Carus in the reign of Varanes II. ...	" 282	Recovery of Mesopotamia by Sapor II. ....	" 358
Invasion of Persia by Galerius, who is defeated by Narses .....	" 297	Invasion of Persia by Julian. — His death and renewal of peace ..	" 363
Defeat of Narses, and surrender of Mesopotamia, &c., to Rome..	" 298	Annexation of Iberia ...	" 366
		Armenia conquered and annexed by Isdigertes I. ....	" 412
		Successful war against Rome .....	" 422

## 2. FROM PEROSES TO THE CONQUEST OF PERSIA BY THE SARACENS.

Peroses, as he was called by the Greeks, or Firouz, as he was called by his countrymen, was of a restless and turbulent disposition. Being incensed against the Turkomans, or "White Sheep," he marched an army into their country; but they cut off his retreat, and obliged him to swear that he would never more invade them. Peroses, however, assembled his forces, and marched a second time towards the northern frontiers; but the Turkomans, rushing unexpectedly upon him, slew and took captive most of his army, and put him to death.

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A.D.

488

A.D.

The nobles bestowed the crown on a son of Firouz, who was called by the Persians Palash, but whom the Greeks called Valens. He was a prince of a virtuous and compassionate disposition, and, at the expiration of four years, fell a victim to the oppressive cares of government. He was succeeded by Cavades, or Kobad, another son of Peroses, who had remained in exile while his brother was on the throne. He undertook to alter the constitution of the kingdom, and issued an edict, which gave so much offence to the nobles that they deposed him, and bestowed the diadem on Zambades, a near relative of Peroses. The new king was equally just and compassionate, zealous for the rights of the crown, and solicitous for the welfare of his subjects; but Cavades, making his escape out of prison, repossessed himself of the throne, and, after putting out the eyes of Zambades, threw him into close confinement.

492

A.D.

Cavades being pressed for the payment of a certain loan, which he had received from the Turkomans, requested the Emperor Anastasius to advance the money on interest; but this being refused, the Persian monarch made a sudden irruption into Armenia, laid the inhabitants under heavy contributions, and reduced the important fortress of Armida, afterwards Diarbekr, on the Tigris. Cavades, however, was defeated by Justin, who was afterwards emperor; and the Turkomans having invaded his territories, he was obliged to march against them, after concluding a truce with the Greeks for twenty years. Cavades died about 530 A.D.

512

A.D.

On the death of Cavades, his son Chosroes I., called by

the Persians Nushirvan I., and surnamed "the Just," ascended the throne, in conformity to the will of his father.

**530**

A.D.

Hostilities had been recommenced between the Byzantines and Persians before the reign of Justinian, and, as soon as this emperor came to the throne, he ordered Belisarius to advance against the enemy. A battle was fought at Dara, in which the Persians were defeated; but Chosroes subsequently retrieved this reverse at Callinicum, though Belisarius prevented him from gaining any advantage from his victory. Peace was concluded in 533 A.D. The Persian nobility, perceiving that Chosroes possessed a restless and turbulent disposition, endeavoured to transfer the sceptre into the hands of a more tractable prince; but the king, being apprised of his danger, caused all the conspirators to be put to death.

Chosroes, receiving a message from the king of the Goths, relative to the augmentation of Justinian's power, commenced fresh hostilities against the Romans, and reduced

**540**

A.D.

the city of Antioch, and several other important places. Whilst the sword of the Persian monarch was bathed in the blood of his enemies, and his coffers were abundantly replenished with the spoils of conquered cities, Belisarius led a numerous army into the Persian territories in 541 and 542 A.D., but gained no advantage from either campaign. Subsequently Chosroes engaged in a war with the

**550**

A.D.

Lazi, a tribe of Colchis, and subdued a great part of their country. The Persians, however, were ultimately defeated and compelled to retire in 556 A.D. by the Byzantines, who sent troops to the assistance of the Lazi. In 562 a treaty was made between the Persians and the Byzantine emperor, by which the latter and his successors were bound to pay to the Persian king 30,000 pieces of gold yearly to abstain from further attacks on the Eastern empire. The tribute was withheld by Justin II., and Chosroes took possession of Syria in 572, and, when Justin abdicated, concluded a truce for three years with his successor, Tiberius II. In 579 Chosroes again invaded the Eastern empire, but was defeated with great loss at Melitene. He was so deeply affected with his ill success that he sickened and died.

**579.**

A.D.

Chosroes I. was succeeded by his son Hormisdas IV., who being of a cruel and obstinate disposition, was ill able to soothe the public troubles, or heal



the wounds of the empire. His ridiculous curiosity relative to future events, his haughty and forbidding carriage, and his impolitic mode of conduct towards foreign princes, were prominent traits in his character. Believing in the assertions of some old diviners, he regarded the generality of his subjects as a rebellious race. His contumelious treatment of the Roman ambassadors occasioned a new war, which terminated to the disadvantage of both parties, the Persians and the Byzantines having gained a great victory at Solaision. 586  
A.D.

Varanes, a Persian general, having roused the jealousy of the Persian monarch by his victories over the Turkomans, Hormisdas took occasion of a reverse which he experienced to send him a woman's garment, and threaten the vanquished troops with decimation. This insult roused the resentment of the army, and inspired the leaders with the thought of effecting a revolution. The popular tumults soon increased, and Hormisdas was dethroned by Varanes. The unfortunate monarch being heard in his own defence, recommended his younger son Hormisdas as his successor, in preference to his elder son Chosroes. The assembly, however, at the instigation of Varanes, caused his son Hormisdas, and the prince's mother, to be cut in pieces; and ordered the eyes of the deposed monarch to be put out with a hot iron.

Chosroes II. ascended the throne, and on his unhappy father reproaching him with baseness and cruelty, he caused him to be beaten with cudgels till he died. But whilst the king was taking measures for the aggrandizement of his power, Varanes advanced at the head of his troops, and effected a counter-revolution, and Chosroes was compelled to abandon his palace, and seek safety in a precipitate flight. Varanes took possession of Ctesiphon, and affected the greatest humanity, beneficence, and condescension; but, on his assuming the royal ornaments at a solemn festival, the sparks of discontent were blown into an open flame, and the nobles attacked the palace in the dead of night. Varanes and his attendants, however, slew most of the assailants, but those who escaped fled towards Media for the purpose of raising forces for the dethroned monarch. 589  
A.D.

Chosroes obtaining the assistance of the Byzantines, defeated the army of Varanes at the battle of Balarath, and repossessed himself of the crown. When he found himself

firmly established in the supreme dignity, he laid aside all the foreign customs, which he had adopted to ingratiate himself with the Romans, and assumed the state and behaviour of a

**611** Persian monarch. On the death of the Emperor  
**A.D.** Mauritius, in 602 A.D., he took up arms against the

Romans. Such was his success, that, in nine years, he plundered the provinces of Syria, Mesopotamia, Phœnicia, Armenia, Cappadocia, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and all the country as far as Chalcedon. He also ravaged Judea; pillaged the city of Jerusalem; and sold ninety Christians to the Jews, who put them all to death. These extraordinary

**616** conquests inducing him to make an expedition into  
**A.D.** Egypt, he reduced Alexandria and all the country towards Libya, and added the empire of Africa to

that of Asia.

The Emperor Heraclius, afflicted by the sight of those horrid cruelties which marked the progress of the Persians, sent ambassadors to offer peace on any terms that were not absolutely dishonourable; but the haughty conqueror, elated with his acquisitions, dismissed them with the following message: "Tell your master that I will not accede to any terms of accommodation, till he and his subjects shall consent to renounce their crucified God, and worship the sun, the great god of the Persians." Indignant at this answer,

**622** Heraclius marched at the head of a formidable army  
**A.D.** against the self-sufficient monarch, who was defeated in several battles, and finally deposed and murdered by his son Siroes, or Shirouieh, about 628 A.D.

Siroes, having ascended the throne of Persia, concluded a treaty of peace with Heraclius; but he was murdered by one of his generals after he had worn the crown about twelve months. He was succeeded by his son Ardshir or Artaxerxes III., who was assassinated in the seventh month of his reign by Sarbas or Shahriar, commander-in-chief of the Persian forces. Sarbas held the supreme power for about two years, and was finally assassinated about 631 A.D. Complete anarchy seems to have followed his death, several princes and princesses being mentioned as having been elevated to the throne during the ensuing year. At last Isdigertes III., or

**632** Yezdijerd III., a grandson of Chosroes II., was  
**A.D.** raised to the throne when only fifteen years of age. The reign of this prince was short and unhappy.

In 636 A.D. the Persians, under his general Rustam, were defeated at Cadesia by the Saracens, in a terrible battle, which is said to have lasted four days. In 637 they occupied Ctesiphon, and Isdigertes withdrew to Media. Step by step the followers of Mahomet asserted their supremacy over the whole of Persia, and Isdigertes, betrayed by a body of Turkish mercenaries, fell in battle in 651 A.D., in the nineteenth year of his reign. In him the royal line of Ardshir was brought to a close, and with his death terminated the Persian empire, which had maintained a glorious existence for about four centuries and a quarter.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Conflicts with the Turkomans. Defeat and death of Perooses.....	A.D. 483	Persians defeated by the Eastern troops at Solaision .....	A.D. 586
Anastasius I. refuses to assist Cavades with money, and the Persian king invades Armenia .....	„ 512	Revolt of Varanes and dethronement of Hormisdas III. ....	„ 589
War with Eastern empire : Chosroes I. defeated at Dara.....	„ 530	Invasion of Syria and capture of Antioch by Chosroes II. ....	„ 611
Peace negotiated between Constantinople and Persia by Belisarius .....	„ 533	Palestine conquered by Chosroes II. ....	„ 614
Invasion of Syria by Chosroes.....	„ 540	Egypt and part of Asia Minor conquered by the Persians .....	„ 616
War with the Lazi of Colchis .....	„ 550	Invasion of Persia by the Byzantine Emperor Heraclius .....	„ 622
Persians driven out of Colchis by the Lazi and Byzantine troops ..	„ 566	Murder of Chosroes II. by his son Siroes or Shirouieh .....	„ 628
Syria invaded and occupied by Chosroes : Capture of Dara.....	„ 572	Invasion of Persia by the Saracens : Battle of Cadesia .....	„ 636
Renewed invasion of Eastern empire by Chosroes, who is defeated at Melitene...	„ 579	Death of Isdigertes II. the last of the Sassanids, and the subjugation of the Persian empire by the Saracens.....	„ 651

## KINGS OF THE DYNASTY OF THE SASSANIDÆ.

Artaxerxes ( <i>Ardshir</i> ) I. A.D. 226	Hormisdas ( <i>Hormouz</i> ) I. A.D. 272
Sapor ( <i>Shahpoor</i> ) I. .... „ 240	Varanes ( <i>Bahram</i> ) I. ... „ 273

Varanes ( <i>Bahram</i> ) II....	A.D. 277	Valens ( <i>Palash</i> ) .....	A.D. 433
Varanes ( <i>Bahram</i> ) III. ..	294	Cavades ( <i>Kobad</i> ) .....	492
Narses ( <i>Narsi</i> ) .....	294	Chosroes ( <i>Nurshivan</i> ) I. ..	530
Hormisdas ( <i>Hormouz</i> ) II. ..	303	Hormisdas ( <i>Hormouz</i> ) ..	
Sapor ( <i>Shahpoor</i> ) II. ....	310	IV. ....	579
Artaxerxes ( <i>Ardshir</i> ) II. ..	381	Chosroes ( <i>Nurshivan</i> ) II. ..	589
Sapor ( <i>Shahpoor</i> ) III....	385	Siroes ( <i>Shirouieh</i> ).....	628
Varanes ( <i>Bahram</i> ) IV. ....	390	Artaxerxes ( <i>Ardshir</i> ) ..	
Isdigertes ( <i>Yezdijerd</i> ) I. ..	401	III. ....	629
Varanes ( <i>Bahram</i> ) V....	421	Sarbas ( <i>Shahriar</i> ).....	629
Isdigertes ( <i>Yezdijerd</i> ) II. ..	444	Anarchy and several mo-	
Hormisdas ( <i>Hormouz</i> ) ..		narchs on the throne,	
III. ....	462	from .....	631
Peroses ( <i>Firouz</i> ) .....	463	Isdigertes( <i>Yezdijerd</i> )III. ..	632

\*. \* The words in Roman show the Greek names of the Persian kings, and the words in italics their Persian names.

## CHAPTER XIII.

### CARTHAGE AND THE STATES OF NORTHERN AFRICA.

#### 1. CARTHAGE AND THE CARTHAGINIANS.

CARTHAGE, which was the capital of Africa Propria, and which, during so many years, disputed the sovereignty of the world with Rome, was founded by the Phœnicians, who, under the conduct of Dido or Elisa, landed on the coast of Africa, and fixed their habitations at the bottom of a gulf, on a peninsula, near the spot where Tunis now stands. Of all the grandeur which adorned this city, not a vestige now remains; and the once omnipotent Carthage lies buried under the ruins of its own walls.

878  
B.C.

Dido was the daughter of the Syrian king, Mettinus, and married her uncle Acerbus or Sichæus, the priest of Melcarth, and a Tyrian noble of high rank and great wealth. Her brother Pygmalion murdered Sichæus in order to obtain possession of his riches, but Dido managed to escape with them, and accompanied by several Syrians, who obtained wives at Cyprus on their way, sailed to Africa, where she founded Carthage.

The colony prospered and increased so much in population, strength, and wealth, that at one time the Carthaginians possessed the greatest part of Spain, Sicily, and the islands of the Mediterranean, besides their establishments in other



time of distress, burnt at once two hundred in number. They adored most of the Egyptian, Greek, and Roman gods under other names.

The commodities of their own produce, with which the Carthaginians supplied other nations, were wheat, fruits of every kind, wax, honey, oil, and skins of beasts. Their chief

Cyprus on their way, sailed to Africa, where she found Carthage.

The colony prospered and increased so much in population, strength, and wealth, that at one time the Carthaginians possessed the greatest part of Spain, Sicily, and the islands of the Mediterranean, besides their establishments in of

countries for the support and extension of their trade. But their immediate territory round them consisted only of what now forms the kingdom of Tunis, or very nearly so. Utica, which had been previously founded by the Syrians about 1165 B.C., was reckoned next to the capital, and next to that Hippo Regius.

It is supposed that monarchy was the original government of Carthage, and the period of its assuming the form of a republic is unknown. The governing body consisted of two suffetes or chief magistrates, who corresponded in rank and power with the consuls at Rome; a council of elders, consisting of thirty members including the suffetes, elected annually, and a senate of one hundred members, whose term of office was at first prolonged for an indefinite period, possibly for life. The council of elders initiated measures, and the senate passed them as laws, if its members approved of them. This senate appears to have been split up into committees of five, to which all matters were referred before being brought before the full house. By the means of these committees the senate ultimately secured all administrative functions, and became possessed of more power than the higher council. All power was supposed to emanate from the people, all members of the council and senate being elected by the popular vote, but this was nullified by the bribery and corruption exercised by the wealthy Carthaginians. In time of war the command in the field was entrusted to a general appointed by the council of elders. His term of office lasted as long as it was required. He was accompanied in the field by two or more elders, who watched his conduct and reported on it. If unsuccessful, it was a common thing for the senate to order him to be tried and put to death.

The deities of Phœnicia were worshipped by the Carthaginians; and at Carthage, the detestable custom of offering children to Baal-Samon, a deity, who was supposed to be appeased, and burning them in honour of him, remained in vogue for a long time. The superstitious Carthaginians, in times of distress, burnt at once two hundred in number. They adored most of the Egyptian, Greek, and Roman gods under their proper names.

Their chief commodities of their own produce, with which the Carthaginians supplied other nations, were wheat, fruits of all kinds, wax, honey, oil, and skins of beasts. Their chief

manufacture consisted in the materials necessary for the equipment of vessels; and they are supposed to have been the inventors of galleys, with four rows of oars, and also of large cables. They procured from Egypt fine hemp, paper, and wheat; from the coasts of the Red Sea, spices, aromatics, gold, pearls, and precious stones; and from Tyre and Phœnicia, purple and scarlet, rich stuffs, and tapestry. On their return from the western coasts, to which they carried their different commodities for sale, they brought back to the east, iron, tin, lead, and brass. They reaped the greatest emolument from their trade with the Persians and Ethiopians, which was conducted by means of caravans; and this kind of commerce was esteemed highly honourable even by the leading members of the state.

From the few existing remains of the Punic language, it appears to have been of Phœnician origin; and the written characters of the Carthaginians were composed partly of Phœnician, and partly of Hebrew. The Carthaginians were extremely superstitious and credulous, with respect to oracles and divinations. The Romans, who were their enemies, characterised them as a people solely employed in amassing riches, and so devoid of good faith, that *fides Punica*, or "Punic faith," became a proverbial expression.

The Carthaginians traded to Spain for gold, and founded Carthage and other settlements on the Spanish coast. It is said that they coasted along the western shore of Africa, and had establishments as far as the twenty-fifth degree of north latitude. Under Himilco, they explored the western coast of Europe; and, under Hanno, they made the circuit of Africa, and discovered the isles of Britain. Against the Mauritians, Numidians, and other neighbouring nations, they employed mercenary troops, which they levied in Africa, Spain, Gaul, and Greece.

Dido, the founder of Carthage, having escaped from the avarice of Pygmalion, king of Tyre, landed on the African coast, and demanded only as much ground as the hide of an ox would encompass. This being granted, she cut the skin into narrow strips, and by that means encircled a large extent of territory, on which she built the citadel called Byrsa. The new city soon became populous and flourishing, and enriched by commerce. Dido, in order to avoid being the wife of Hiarbas, a neighbouring African

878

B.C.



prince, caused a funeral pile to be erected, and with a dagger put an end to her existence.

It is not possible to give in detail a precise account of the growth of the republic of Carthage. The founders of the new city paid a yearly tax or tribute to the Libyan princes, who claimed proprietorship over the land on which it was built for more than 400 years, when the relative positions were reversed, and the neighbouring tribes and districts paid tribute to Carthage. In 509 B.C. the first commercial treaty was concluded between Rome and Carthage, but by this time Carthage had become a first class power in the Mediterranean. On the African coast, her dominion extended virtually, if not actually, from the modern Strait of Gibraltar, or Pillars of Hercules, to the head of the gulf called Syrtis Major. Supremacy by sea had been secured by the great battle fought with the Phœceans, the founders of Massilia or Marseilles, in 536 B.C., off Aleria in Corsica, and by the exertions of Hasdrubal and Hamilcar, the sons of Mago, founder of a family prominent in later Carthaginian history, Sardinia had been conquered as a dependency. The Balearic Isles had also been annexed, and colonies founded in Spain. It was long before Corsica was subdued, but it came into the power of the Carthaginians long before the time of the first Punic war.

But although the Carthaginians had gradually extended their power over most of the western islands of the Mediterranean, they had hitherto gained but very trifling success in Sicily, against which they sent a very strong and powerful armament under the command of Hamilcar, who was totally defeated by Gelo and Theron, the *turannoi*, or absolute rulers, of Syracuse and Agrigentum. The republic confided another expedition against Sicily to Hannibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, 409 B.C., and a third, three years later, to his cousin Himilco. Hannibal took Selinus and Himera, and offered up a great human sacrifice of 3,000 prisoners on the tomb of his grandfather; while Himilco took Agrigentum, but the plague having broken out among his troops, he was obliged to return to Africa with the wreck of the most flourishing army that Carthage had ever seen. A fourth expedition resulted in a treaty of peace with Dionysius of Syracuse, in 405 B.C., on terms which left them in possession of a great part of the island; but six years after he took up arms against

them again, and the Carthaginians were obliged to withdraw.

However, reiterated ill success could not damp the spirits,

**310**

B.C.

nor lessen the zeal of the Carthaginians, who sent another powerful army into Sicily, and defeated Agathocles, king of Syracuse. Agathocles, at a time when his enemies thought that he could not escape them, equipped an armament, and, transferring the war to Africa, laid siege to Carthage. After ravaging Sicily and Africa, the Syracusans concluded a peace on conditions which scarcely altered the position of the Carthaginians in Sicily. Eventually the Carthaginians gained possession of the western part of the island, but Sicily was never wholly subdued by them.

The story of the three Punic wars between Rome and Carthage will be related more at length in the History of

**264**

B.C.

Rome. The first Punic war was commenced by the Romans, in expectation of gaining Sicily and Sardinia, which would naturally become the reward of the conqueror. The ostensible cause, however, was the offer of the Mamertines to put their city into the possession of the Romans, whose protection they requested, and who sent Caius Claudius to their assistance. The Carthaginians attacked and destroyed the fleet of the Romans, who, notwithstanding their defeat, made a descent upon Sicily, and having entered into an alliance with Hiero, tyrant of Syracuse, secured to themselves the possession of several towns. At length the Romans obtained a decided superiority over their rivals on the ocean, the natural element of the Carthaginians, and carried the war into Africa, and under the very walls of Carthage. They were, however, defeated, and expelled from Africa, but remained still powerful in Sicily, where only the town of Lilybæum held out for the Carthaginians. After

**241**

B.C.

the war had continued many years, a peace was concluded with the Romans by Hamilcar Barca, who reluctantly signed the conditions to which the distress of the republic compelled him to accede, and by which the Carthaginians agreed to surrender all their possessions in Sicily, pay an annual tribute to Rome, and evacuate all the small islands adjacent to Italy and Sicily.

Carthage had no sooner concluded this treaty, than this republic was engaged in another war, which was marked by

every excess of the most dreadful cruelty. The Libyan mercenaries, in whom, unfortunately, consisted the chief strength of the army, had been disbanded, but, on account of the exhausted state of the treasury, had not been paid for their services. These soldiers immediately chose two leaders, Spendius and Mathos, and keeping Carthage in a manner blockaded, invited the cities of Africa to assist in asserting their freedom. All soon joined in the rebellion, except Utica and Hippo, which continued their allegiance to Carthage. This sanguinary and intestine contest, which is called the "Inexpiable War," was terminated chiefly through the conduct of Hamilcar Barca, who surrounded and cut in pieces upwards of 40,000 of these unfortunate wretches, and caused Spendius and the other prisoners to be cruelly put to death by crucifixion.

The peace between Rome and Carthage continued twenty-three years, during which the latter power was recruiting her strength, and meditating on the means of revenging her losses and disgrace. Hamilcar sought to compensate Carthage for the loss of Sicily by establishing his country's supremacy in Spain, whence men and ample supplies might be procured, but after nine years' war (238—229 B.C.), he was killed in battle, at a time when he was surrounded by men, whom his merits had attached to him, and who were sufficient to commence hostilities with the Romans. He was succeeded in his command by his son-in-law Hasdrubal, after whose death (221 B.C.), the eminent military ability of Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, endeared him to the troops, who set him at their head.

Hannibal, while yet a boy, had been made by his father to take an oath of undying enmity to Rome, and having come to man's estate, he sought to carry out to the utmost of his ability the savage work of hatred and revenge that had been imposed on him. He commenced the second Punic war (219—202 B.C.) with the siege of Saguntum, a city of Spain, in alliance with the Romans, which was situated in the midst of the Carthaginian possessions in that country, and which, after a long and bloody siege, was taken and razed to the ground. Hannibal now formed the bold design of carrying the war into Italy. Having, therefore, united himself by treaties with the princes of Spain, and incorporated into his army many of their

219  
B.C.

soldiers and leaders, who became, to a certain extent, hostages for the good behaviour of their countrymen, he opened his

**218** way over the Pyrenees, from the banks of the Ebro  
to the borders of the Rhone, and thence marched

**B.C.** his troops across the Alps, upon which he lost a great number of his men.

The soldiers who were killed in the battles which Hannibal fought, were soon replaced by those whom the fame of his success brought to his standard. Thus, after the battles of Ticinus and Trebia (218 B.C.), which were so advantageous to this general, he was able to acquire additional glory at Thrasymene (217 B.C.), and secure victory at Cannæ (216 B.C.). But the Romans, taught by misfortune, confined themselves to defensive war, cutting off his provisions, and intercepting his contributions. Hannibal, however, maintained himself sixteen years in Italy, and often disconcerted the best-laid plans of his enemies. In the meantime, Spain, Sicily, and Sardinia were torn from the republic; and reiterated orders, and the imminent danger of Carthage, alone induced him to return to Africa, where he was conquered in the fields of Zama by Publius Scipio, surnamed Africanus (202 B.C.). Carthage thus subdued, was disarmed by the Romans, who burnt the fleet of this republic, and caused it to pay a considerable sum for the expenses of the war.

After the termination of the second Punic war, Hannibal was placed as suffete at the head of the republic, and in this station exhibited talents for government equal to those which he had displayed in commanding armies. However, the unrelenting hatred of the Romans obliged this great and remarkable man to fly from city to city, and from country to country, till at length, at the age of seventy-six years, after taking an active part in the war carried on by Antiochus the Great against the Romans (192—190 B.C.), he retired to the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, where he swallowed poison to avoid falling into their hands, about 183 B.C.

At last, the Roman senate, jealous and uneasy at seeing the weakened republic of Carthage resuming to some

**149** extent its ancient vigour, determined on its total  
**B.C.** destruction. Taking advantage of a quarrel between

the authorities of Carthage and Masinissa, king of Numidia, in which the former made war in Africa contrary to the terms of the treaty which had been made with the Romans, the

senate, after raising an immense army by sea and land, intimated that the municipal freedom and property of the Carthaginians would be respected if 300 young men of the best families were first given up as hostages. It was further stated that the Romans would then announce the remaining conditions on which peace would be granted. The Carthaginians complied with this requisition, and sent the unfortunate victims to Lilybæum. The consuls, who were in command of the army, then ordered them to deliver up all their galleys, with three rows of oars, and engines of war, and to bring all their arms to the Roman camp. To these conditions they submitted with affliction and regret. Thus despoiled, and incapable of defending themselves, the Carthaginians were required to abandon their city, and build another at a distance from the sea, and without walls or fortifications.

When the mournful news reached Carthage, the most dreadful consternation arose. Rage and anger succeeded to despair; and all swore to die rather than to submit to such iniquitous conditions. From this resolution proceeded a war of two years' duration. The Carthaginians performed everything which men so reduced could perform. After contending with the Romans from street to street, they threw themselves into the citadel, which the defenders themselves set on fire, and perished in the flames. Thus 146  
fell the first Carthage, about 730 years after its B.C.  
foundation. It was afterwards rebuilt by the Romans, and, in the reign of Augustus, took the place of Utica as capital of the Roman province of Africa. It was also the capital of the Vandal kingdom of Africa, under Genseric, king of the Vandals. It was captured by Belisarius in 533 A.D., and in 647 A.D. it was totally destroyed by the Saracens, and scarcely a vestige of it remains to mark its site.

It is curious to note how many of the great cities of olden time which once held such prominence in the world's history have left little or nothing to mark the site where they stood, surpassing in the magnificence and apparent durability of the public buildings which adorned them many of the capitals of the states and kingdoms of the present day. None, however, except Pasargadæ, and a few other cities of the East, have left so few traces of their remains as the wealthy and populous metropolis of Northern Africa, which so long disputed with Rome the sovereignty of Mediterranean waters.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Carthage founded by Dido, and emigrants from Tyre .....	B.C. 878	The first Punic war with Rome commenced.....	B.C. 264
Battle of Aleria, in Corsica, with the Phœceans of Massilia .....	„ 536	Defeat of Regulus in Africa by Xantippus..	„ 255
First commercial treaty concluded with Rome ..	„ 509	Conclusion of the first Punic war .....	„ 241
Carthaginians secure a footing in Sicily. Defeated by Gelo at Himera .....	„ 480	Hamilcar Barca prosecutes Carthaginian conquests in Spain.....	„ 238
Renewed invasion of Sicily. Successes of Hannibal .....	„ 412	Hamilcar's son Hannibal assumes the chief command in Spain .....	„ 221
Capture of Agrigentum by Himilco.....	„ 409	Capture of Saguntum by Hannibal, and commencement of second Punic war .....	„ 219
Carthaginians in Sicily defeated by Dionysius of Syracuse .....	„ 392	Hannibal enters Italy. Battles of Ticinus and Trebia.....	„ 218
Agathocles, tyrant of Syracuse, defeated by Carthaginians at Himera .....	„ 310	Romans defeated in the battle of Cannæ .....	„ 216
Agathocles carries the war into Carthaginian territory .....	„ 310	Hannibal defeated at Zama, in Africa. End of second Punic war...	„ 202
		Destruction of Carthage at end of third Punic war of three years ...	„ 146

## 2. NUMIDIA AND THE NUMIDIANS.

Numidia was bounded by the Mediterranean Sea on the north, by the river Tusca on the east, by Gætulia on the south, and by the Mulucha, which separated it from Mauritania, on the west. The first inhabitants of this country are supposed to have been the descendants of Phut, the brother of Misraim; but some colonies of Phœnicians were planted among them in the earliest ages. The principal objects of their adoration were the sun and moon; and divine honours were paid to some of the gods of Greece and Phœnicia. It is probable that the inhabitants of the coast adopted the same form of government as Carthage, while those in the interior lived beneath an absolute monarchy. Their language was certainly distinct from that of the Phœnicians and Carthaginians.

It is probable that Hiarbas reigned in Numidia, as well as in Africa Propria, when Dido laid the foundation of Byrsa. Subsequently Numidia was divided into two parts, the point

of demarcation on the sea-coast being the mouth of the little river El Kebir, on which Cirta, now Constantine, stood. The western and larger division was occupied by the Massæsylians, and the eastern division by the Massylians. About 214 B.C., when the Romans were busily engaged in breaking the power of Carthage in Spain, and preparing to carry the war into her African territories, Syphax was the king of the Massæsylians, and Gala the king of the Massylians. The former took the part of the Romans, but Gala sided with the Carthaginians, and his son Masinissa, afterwards so famous, marched against Syphax and defeated him. In 206 B.C., Masinissa, who had now ascended the throne, entered into alliance with the Romans. On this the Carthaginians, dreading his abilities, excited against him the jealousy of Syphax, who, attacking the Massylians with resistless fury, dispersed their forces, and expelled Masinissa from the throne. In this exigence, Masinissa fortified himself in a spot, which he maintained for a long time; but at length he was compelled to fly, and seek refuge in a cave, where he was supported by two horsemen who accompanied him. Masinissa regained the throne, from which Syphax and the Carthaginians once more displaced him; but he was finally restored to his kingdom by the Romans at the close of the Second Punic War (202 B.C.). It was the constant aggression of Masinissa on the Carthaginians, and the effort that they made at last to resist his encroachments, that produced the Third Punic War.

On the death of Masinissa, the Romans, in accordance with the desire of the aged African monarch, divided his kingdom among his three sons, Micipsa, Gulussa, and Mastanabal. Gulussa and Mastanabal died, and the latter having left an illegitimate son named Jugurtha, Micipsa brought him up in the royal palace with his own children, Adherbal and Hiempsal. Jugurtha was remarkably handsome, and endued with great bodily strength, and the finest mental abilities. Though he excelled in all things, he spoke very little of himself; and yet, with these attractive qualities, he was a monster of cruelty, ingratitude, and deceit.

By his will Micipsa declared him heir to his crown conjointly with his two sons Hiempsal and Adherbal, whom he recommended to him with his dying breath. His uncle, however, had no sooner expired than Jugurtha caused his cousin Hiempsal to be assassinated, and

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B.C.

Adherbal was obliged to fly to Rome, where he implored protection for himself, and vengeance against the murderer of his brother. Jugurtha made use of money for his justification; and his success emboldened him to take from his cousin the

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B.C.

small remaining part of the kingdom, and put him to death. This tragical event roused the indignation of the Romans, who sent two bodies of troops against the murderer; but Jugurtha appeased them with gold, and appeared at Rome, where he dared even to assassinate Massiva, the son of Hiempsal. He was, however, delivered up to the

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B.C.

Romans by his father-in-law Bocchus, king of Mauritania, and after following the car of Marius, when he passed through Rome in triumph for his victories in Africa, was put to death. He was succeeded by Hiempsal II., a son of his legitimate brother Gauda, who died about 79 B.C.

Juba I., the son and successor of Hiempsal II., having taken Pompey's part in the quarrel between him and Caesar, Numidia was reduced to a Roman province on the defeat of the former in 46 B.C.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Hiarbas probably king of Numidia.....	B.C. 878	Gulussa, and Mastanabal .....	B.C. 149
Syphax, king of the Massylians, and Gala, king of the Massylians .....	" 214	Micipsa, sole king of Numidia, dies .....	" 118
Masinissa, king of the Massylians, in alliance with Rome.....	" 206	Jugurtha obtains the crown by murder and bribery .....	" 112
Masinissa's repeated aggressions on Carthage lead to Third Punic War.....	" 149	Romans declare war against Jugurtha. — Beginning of Jugurthine war .....	" 111
Distribution of his kingdom between Micipsa,		End of the war and death of Jugurtha .....	" 104
		Numidia constituted a Roman province .....	" 46

#### 3. MAURITANIA AND THE MAURITANIANS.

Mauritania, which was so called from the Mauri, an ancient people, was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north, by the Mulucha on the east, by Gætulia on the south, and by the Atlantic Ocean on the west. Its inhabitants were chiefly engaged in agriculture, and the country was famed for its produce. The Numidians, on the contrary, like the Arabs of the



present day, wandered from place to place, and hence received their name, which is closely akin to our term "nomads."

The Mauritians were the descendants of Phut, the son of Ham; but the Phœnicians planted colonies among them in very early ages. Their government seems to have always been monarchical. Atlas, the first king of Mauritania, according to the ancients, is said to have cultivated the sciences. The Mauritians only became known by actual intercourse to the Romans at the end of the Second Punic War. At the end of the Jugurthine war, Jugurtha was delivered up to the Romans by Bocchus, the king of Mauritania, and his father-in-law, with whom he had taken refuge after his defeat by Marius. After Jugurtha's death Bocchus appears to have been rewarded for his treachery by the western division of Numidia. Later, in 49 B.C., Julius Cæsar is spoken of as having confirmed Bogudes and Bocchus, another monarch of this name, as joint kings of Mauritania. When Numidia was constituted a Roman province in 46 B.C., the river Ampsaga was constituted the boundary between Numidia and Mauritania. About 25 B.C. Augustus made Juba II., the son of Juba I. of Numidia, king of Mauritania from the Atlantic to the Ampsaga. This king received his education at Rome, and was remarkably well acquainted with the Assyrian, Arabic, Greek, Punic, African, and Latin histories, and wrote some excellent treatises on grammar, painting, natural history, &c., some fragments of which are still extant. He was succeeded by his son Ptolemy, who was murdered by order of Caligula, 40 A.D. Claudius, in 42 A.D., then divided the country into two provinces, Mauritania Tingitana and Mauritania Cæsariensis; but of these the former was, strictly speaking, the Mauritania of the ancients. Later, the part of Mauritania Cæsariensis which lay to the east of Saldæ was constituted by Diocletian the province of Mauritania Sitifensis, so called from its chief town Sitifi, now Sitif.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Mauritania first in contact with Rome.....	B.C. 202	Ptolemy, son of Juba, murdered by Caligula.....	A.D. 40
Bocchus betrays Jugurtha, and receives Western Numidia.....	„ 104	Mauritania divided by the Emperor Claudius into the Roman provinces of M. Tingitana and M. Cæsariensis .....	„ 42
Juba II. made king of Mauritania by Augustus .....	„ 25		

#### 4. GÆTULIANS, MELANOÆTULIANS, OR NIGRITÆ, AND GARAMANTES.

History has preserved little respecting these nations besides their names, and even the boundaries of Gætulia have never been satisfactorily defined by geographers. Their wandering hordes, which were sometimes united and sometimes scattered, extended from Numidia and Mauritania, more or less, towards the deserts. It is possible that the Melanoætulians, or "black Gætulians," and the Garamantes were the ancient people of Soudan, or Nigritia.

#### 5. MARMARICA.

Marmarica was bounded on the east and west by Egypt and Cyrenaica, on the south by the Libyan desert, and on the north by the Mediterranean. The principal Libyan nations inhabiting this region were the Adrymachidæ and the Ammonii. The former were situated near the coast, and occupied the western corner of Egypt, below Parætonium; and the latter, who derived their name from Jupiter Ammon, lay farther inland, and possessed the oasis of Ammon, now called Siwah, about ten days' journey westward from Thebes, in Egypt.

#### 6. CYRENAICA.

This tract of territory was bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east by Marmarica, on the south by the desert of Sahara, and on the west by the Regio Syrtica. The soil along the coast was extremely fertile and productive. The principal nations who inhabited or bordered on this region were the Barcæi, the Psylli, and the Nasomenes.

Cyrene, the capital, was founded about 630 B.C. by Battus, who led thither a body of emigrants from the Spartan colony of Thera. It remained under its Greek kings until 450 B.C., when it was constituted a democracy. Cyrene had been conquered by the Persians about 510 B.C., and placed under the government of the Persian satrap of Egypt; but the connection with that country was rather nominal than actual until it was annexed by Ptolemy about 321 B.C. It was bequeathed to Rome by Apion (95 B.C.), its Egyptian viceroy, and erected into a Roman province, to which Crete was annexed some years later.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Cyrene founded by Batus of Thera .....	B.C. 630	Constituted a democracy B.C. 450	
Conquered by the Persians and annexed to Egypt .....	„ 510	Annexed to Egypt by Ptolemy I. ....	„ 321
		Formed into a Roman province .....	„ 95

## 7. THE REGIO SYRTICA.

The Regio Syrtica, which derived its name from the two Syrtes on its eastern and western limits, was bounded by the Mediterranean on the north, by Cyrenaica on the east, by the desert on the south, and by Africa Propria on the west. The soil in general was extremely barren, but some places were tolerably productive of corn, fruit, and oil. The principal nations inhabiting this region were the Gindanes, Cinethii, Maceæ, and Lotophagi, who derived their name from their subsisting on the plant lotus, a kind of reed, which some supposed to be the sugar-cane.

## 8. ETHIOPIA.

Ethiopia, the Cush of the Scriptures, was bounded on the north by Egypt; on the east by the Red Sea; on the south by an unknown part of Africa; and on the west by Libya Interior.

In point of antiquity, the Ethiopians might even claim a superiority over the Egyptians, since their progenitor, Cush, was the eldest son of Ham; and they might be esteemed of equal antiquity with the Arabians, as the Cushites migrated from the kingdom of Midian into the southern parts of the peninsula of the Arabs and Ethiopia. Many of the customs, laws, and sciences of the Ethiopians were similar to those of the Egyptians.

It was said by the ancients that among the peoples of this part of Africa were the Troglodytes, who lived in caves, and fed on serpents, lizards, and other reptiles; that in Nubia were pigmies; and that ostriches, as large as a stag, were the animals of chase of the Abulitæ. Locusts, tortoises, elephants, and fish, formed the food of many nations, who thence obtained their appellations. The Elephantophagi dwelt in the branches of trees, whence they descended to chase the lion, the leopard, and the elephant. It is even said that Ethiopia contained Anthropophagi or cannibals.

That there were cities in this country is sufficiently attested by the magnificent ruins which still exist. It is well-known that detachments of Arabs gradually increased the population of Ethiopia; but their mixture has not altered the indigenous race, of whose origin we are ignorant, beyond that they are supposed to be descended from Cush, the son of Ham. The government seems to have been always monarchical, and was often carried on, especially in later times, under the sway of women, who were distinguished by the name of Candace, as the kings of Egypt had that of Pharaoh. In other respects, its kingdoms were sometimes consolidated into one, and sometimes divided into many. In some the monarchy was hereditary, and in others elective, or attached to the priesthood; in some restrained by laws, and in others despotic. With respect to their religion, nothing certain can be said; but it appears that the gods of Egypt and Greece were worshipped in Ethiopia. It is certain, however, that idolatry was not universal, but that the court and higher orders professed theism, and observed the Jewish customs. The Ethiopians had a great variety of dialects, and a distinct language and letters, which are still preserved, and in which were written their public acts and sacred books.

The Ethiopians were naturally hardy, intrepid, violent, generous, frank, and humane; and they readily forgave injuries, and were the zealous partizans of justice. The early history of Ethiopia is enveloped in such clouds of fiction and uncertainty, that little can be said on the subject, with any degree of confidence, till the time of Solomon (1015—975 B.C.), to whom the queen of Sheba paid a visit. It is believed that this princess was an Ethiopian, and constant tradition reports that she was the mother of an extended dynasty, descendants of Solomon, who continue to reign in this country. It will be remembered that Theodore, the negus or Emperor of Abyssinia, the ancient Ethiopia, or a part of it, who fell at Magdala at the close of the Ethiopian war, boasted of his descent from Menilek, the son of Solomon and the queen of Sheba.

The connection of Ethiopia with other nations has been alluded to in the history of Egypt and the Jews. In the reign of Asa, king of Judah, Zerah, the king of Ethiopia, led an expedition against Palestine, and was defeated at Marshah in 941 B.C. Nearly two hundred years later, Sabaco or

Shebek, in 719 B.C., led an army into Upper Egypt, and there established a dynasty of Ethiopian kings; and in 698 B.C., Tirhakah, king of Ethiopia, marched to the assistance of Hezekiah against Sennacherib and the Assyrians. In 600 B.C. Ethiopia was invaded by Psammis, king of Egypt; and in 524 B.C. Cambyzes led an expedition thither, which utterly failed in its object. Ptolemy III. Euergetes reduced Ethiopia in 225 B.C., but it soon recovered independence under its native sovereigns. In the reign of Augustus, an Ethiopian army, under Candace, the queen of the country, was defeated by the Roman general, Petronius (22 B.C.), and in the early days of the Christian Church, we know that the treasurer of the then reigning queen, Candace, had gone up to Jerusalem to worship, and had been baptised on his way homewards by Philip the Evangelist, about A.D. 34. The Ethiopians were among the first people who embraced Christianity, which, though greatly mixed with Judaism, their descendants, the Abyssinians, still profess.

THE END.

ANCIENT HISTORY

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**A HISTORY**  
**OF**  
**GREECE AND THE GREEK COLONIES,**  
**ETC., ETC.**

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**CHAPTER I.**

**ANCIENT GREECE AND THE NEIGHBOURING COUNTRIES.**

**1. GEOGRAPHY OF ANCIENT GREECE.**

BEFORE entering on the history of any country, it is better to attempt to give a brief but succinct explanation of the limits and extent of the country itself, whenever it can be done with sufficient clearness and precision. It is the more needful in the present instance that the student may be able to give a suitable answer to the question, "What is Ancient Greece?" and point out its divisions—small component parts or independent states, which together formed the country that is known under this name.

Ancient Greece is the southern part of the great south-eastern peninsula of Europe. This peninsula may be considered as being bounded on the north by the mountain-chain now known as the Hæmus or Balkan range. Commencing near the western shore of the Euxine or Black Sea, this range was known as the Hæmus Mountains in its eastern part, the Scamius Mountains in its centre, and the Scardus Mountains in the west. At the twenty-first degree of east longitude these mountains bend abruptly to the south, and curl westward again round the modern lake Okhrida. Proceeding due west from the bend that has been mentioned, we find, running in the lower part of its course along the forty-second parallel of north longitude, the river Drin, which

completes the northern boundary of the peninsula in a line running as nearly due east and west as possible.

The bend of the Scardus Mountains that has been described as taking a course from north to south, and the modern river Lima running from east to west, form the eastern and southern limits respectively of the southern part of Illyricum. The mountains to which allusion has twice been made as running southward from the Scardus Mountains are called the Bernus Mountains. To the eastward of these, and along the southern slopes of the Scomius Mountains, lies Pæonia, the most northern province of Macedonia, and between the river Strymon and the Black Sea, traversed from north-west to south-east, by the Rhodope Mountains, lay Thrace, bounded on the south by the Ægean Sea and the Propontis, or modern Sea of Marmara.

A continuation of the branch of the Hæmus range, called the Bernus Mountains, is found in the Pindus Mountains, a range which sweeps from the southern side of the valley of the upper course of the modern Lima in a crescent-like form through the peninsula, or rather mainland of the peninsula from north-east to south-east, until it reaches Attica. From this range, which forms what has been aptly called "the back-bone of the peninsula," in the fortieth parallel of north latitude, two chains branch out, one to the north-west, and the other to the north-east. Of these, the former, called the Lingon Mountains, terminates in the Acroceraunian headland; while the latter, which forms the southern waterhead of the valley of the Haliacmon, ends in Mount Olympus, the fabled resort of the heathen deities of Ancient Greece. This chain, which bears the name of the Cambanian Mountains, forms the southern boundary of Macedonia. On the west of the central chain of the Pindus Mountains lies Epirus, extending southward from Illyricum to the Ambracian Gulf; while on the east of it is Thessaly, bounded on the south by the Othrys range, an offshoot of the Pindus Mountains.

Mount Othrys runs in a direction pretty nearly due east and west from Mount Pindus to the Malia Gulf, and the continuation of a line westward to the Ambracian Gulf, will define with tolerable clearness the northern limits of Ancient Greece. Thus, then, to the south of this line we have Ancient Greece, of which it will be necessary to speak in detail directly, and to the north of it, first Epirus and Thessaly

side by side, then Macedonia to the north of Thessaly, and, lastly, Thrace to the north-east of Macedonia. These countries are geographically connected with Ancient Greece; and two of them, first Epirus, and, secondly, Macedonia, exerted at different times considerable influence over the entire peninsula; while from the latter sprung the Græco-Macedonian empire, which was built on the ruins of that of Persia.

Let us now turn to Ancient Greece, whose northern limits, consisting chiefly of Mount Othrys, as far as natural boundaries go, have already been defined. This famous country, once the land of demi-gods and heroes, and now the smallest and weakest of the European states, consists, physically speaking, of two parts, divided by the Gulf of Corinth on one side, resembling the Mediterranean Sea in miniature, and the Saronic Gulf on the other. Of these the northern part, or mainland of Greece, was usually called *Hellas*; while the southern part, which was almost insular, and connected with the mainland only by the Isthmus of Corinth, was distinguished as the Peloponnesus. The entire country was washed by the Ægean Sea on the east, the Mediterranean Sea on the south, and the Ionian Sea on the west. In the Ionian Sea, on the west coast of Greece, are the islands of Corcyra, the modern Corfu, Leucadia, or Leucas, Ithaca, Cephallenia, and Zacynthus, which, with some smaller islets, form the group known at the present time as the Ionian Islands. In the Mediterranean, on the south, lay the island of Cythera, and Crete, a long and narrow island of irregular form, stretching across the entrance of the Ægean Sea like a mole across the mouth of a harbour. The Ægean Sea itself was studded with islands and island groups. Of the latter, the principal were the Cyclades, to the south-east of Attica, so called from the round, compact form in which they were disposed, lying as it were within the circumference of a circle, and comprising Andros, Tenos, Ceos, Syros, Myconos, Delos, Paros, Naxos, Melos, Thera, and a vast number of other islets. On the seaboard of Ionica and Caria, countries of Asia Minor, scattered far and wide, whence the name, in a long irregular line from north to south, lay the Sporades, including Samos, Icaria, Patmos, Leros, Cos, Rhodes, Carpathos, &c. Along the coast of Phocis, Bœotia, and Attica, provinces of Northern Greece, lay the islands of Eubœa, similar in general form to Crete, and divided from the main-

land by the narrow channel of the Euripus. In the midst of the *Ægean Sea* lay Scyros ; and on the coast of *Asia Minor* the great islands of Chios, Lemnos, and Lesbos. The islands of Imbros, Samothrace, and Thraso, off the coast of Thrace and Halonessus, and some smaller islands lying across the entrance to the Thermaic Gulf, between Thessaly and the curiously-formed peninsula of Chalcidice, complete the list of the principal islands in the *Ægean Sea*.

The divisions of Northern Greece, or rather the independent states into which the mainland of Ancient Greece was divided, were as follows :—On the south side of the *Ambracian Gulf*, between the sea and the river Achelœus, was *Acarania*, resembling very much an equilateral triangle in form. To the west of the Achelœus was *Ætolia*. Doris was a little state jammed in between *Ætolia* and *Locris*, and situated far inland. *Locris* stretched from the Gulf of Corinth to the *Maliac Gulf*, and was divided from *Ætolia* by the *Evenus*. The people in the south of *Locris* were distinguished as *Locri Ozolæ*, those in the north and centre as *Locri Epicnemidii*, and those in the east, on the borders of the Euripus, as *Locri Opuntii*. To the east of the country of the *Locri Ozolæ*, and between this and *Boeotia*, lay *Phocia*. *Boeotia* extended from the head of the Gulf of Corinth to the Channel of the Euripus, and to the south of it, forming a long peninsula trending southwards far into the *Ægean Sea*, was *Attica*, whose capital was Athens, for many years the chief seat of learning in the empire of Rome as well as Greece. Then, to the south of *Boeotia* and west of *Attica*, came the little isthmus state of *Megaris*, which separated, with the neighbouring state of Corinth, from which the narrowest part of the isthmus took its name, the waters of the *Corinthian* and *Saronic Gulfs*.

The Isthmus of Corinth forms the connecting link between the mainland and the peninsula, as it has been said ; but the *Corinthian* territory principally belongs to the latter. The states of the *Peloponnesus* are disposed in a circle round *Arcadia*, which occupies the centre. Next to Corinth, to the westward, comes *Sicyon*, and from this little state, stretching along the southern seaboard of the Gulf of Corinth, comes *Achaia*. Due west of *Arcadia* is *Elis*, and to the eastward of it *Argolis*, forming a long, narrow peninsula, having the *Saronic Gulf* on one side, and the Gulf of *Argolis* on the

other. The southern part of the Peloponnesus is occupied by Messenia on the west, and the powerful state of Laconia on the east, which is split into a forked form by the Gulf of Laconia, thus forming two peninsulas, terminating the one to the east, in the headland of Malea, and the one to the west in the promontory of Tanarium. This western peninsula is divided from Messenia by the Gulf of Messenia. The relative positions of the states and countries of Greece may be fixed more readily on the memory by reference to the map.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE EARLY HISTORY OF ANCIENT GREECE.

2089 B.C. to 1104 B.C.

#### 1. THE REPUTED ORIGIN OF THE GREEKS.

THE country which we speak of under the name of Ancient Greece was not so called by its early inhabitants. It consisted, as it has been already explained, of two parts; one continental, and the other peninsular. The whole was called by the old Greeks, when they spoke of the states comprised in it collectively under a single name, *Hellas*, and the peninsula, the Peloponnesus, or "island of Pelops." The name *Græcia*, or Greece, was given to the country by the Romans, who also spoke of the inhabitants as *Græcia*, or Greeks. There was a tribe of this name in Epirus, according to Aristotle, and it has been conjectured "that the Romans, becoming acquainted, first with these *Græci* on the further shore of the Adriatic, extended the name to the whole country."\* The southern part of Italy was called *Magna Græcia*, or Great Greece; and it is most probable that this name was given to it by some of the pioneers of Greek colonisation in Southern Italy. If these pioneers were *Græci*, or Greeks, from the little tract of country that the tribe possessed on the coast of Epirus, they would be likely to call the new territory in which they were settling after the name of the motherland, and to distinguish it as *Great*, when they compared the size of the country over which they could roam unchecked with

\* "Ancient History," by Philip Smith, B.A.

the narrow limits of that which they had left ; and thus the Romans were led to give the name that the Greek inhabitants of the southern part of the Italian peninsula applied to the land of their adoption to the whole of the country from which the early Greek colonists had come.

The earliest inhabitants of both the Greek and Italian peninsulas were Pelasgians, and the ancient Greeks themselves were frequently called Pelasgi. These were conquered and deprived of the greater part, if not the whole, of their territories by the Hellenes, a race of warriors who came from Hellas, supposed to be a district of Thessaly, to the north of Mount Othrys. From the Hellenes, the country of which they had possessed themselves was called Hellas. Swarming over the mainland and entering the peninsula, they forced back the Pelasgians into the hilly districts of the interior, and took possession of the whole coast. The Hellenes considered themselves to be the descendants of Prometheus, one of the old Titans, the fabled sons of the ancient deities, Heaven and Earth, to use the equivalents in English of the Greek names Ouranos and Gea, or the Latin names Coelus and Terra. Prometheus was supposed to have been the father of Deucalion, in whose time mankind was destroyed by a flood sent on the earth by Jupiter, and who was saved from destruction, with his wife and cousin, Pyrrha, in a ship which he had built by the advice of his father. The ship rode safely on the waters during their continuance, and when they began to subside, it was stranded on one of the peaks of Parnassus. Quitting their vessel, Deucalion and Pyrrha made their way at last to the plains below, and by them was the south-eastern peninsula of Europe re-peopled.

More than one deluge is mentioned by ancient writers, but all of them are described as being partial, and by no means universal. Even the deluge in Deucalion's time, which is

**1503** said to have happened rather more than fifteen hundred years before the Christian era, is not spoken

**B.C.** of as bringing with it such complete destruction as that which overtook the earth by the flood in the days of Noah, and which, according to the commonly received system of chronology, took place in 2348 B.C., or nearly eight hundred and fifty years before the catastrophe from which Deucalion escaped. The story in all probability is merely a revival of the tradition of the Great Flood which swept man-

kind from the face of the earth. Almost every race preserves some dim reminiscence of the event handed down from generation to generation, and this in itself is a strong argument for the common origin of mankind in Noah and his sons, as related in the Bible. The introduction into Greek legendary history shows how, by lapse of time, the inhabitants of what we may term the Greek peninsula, although they were descended from Japheth and his immediate posterity, who had been instructed in the worship of the true God, had gradually fallen into such utter forgetfulness of Him that they had fashioned for themselves new and false deities, while faint recollections only appeared now and then of the early history of their remote ancestors in this and other legends, whose sources may be easily traced to events recorded in Holy Writ.

It may not be altogether without its use to point out here that, in no two accounts of the same event, one derived from the Scriptures, and the other from the writings of profane historians, is the parallel so complete, thus affording indisputable evidence of the common origin of both narratives. On the one hand, we have Noah and his three sons, and their wives escaping by Divine instruction from the impending flood which the anger of the Almighty at the frightful wickedness and impiety of man was about to bring on the earth. The mode of escape is the ark, a vessel, which, at the subsidence of the waters, settles on Mount Ararat, and the men and women that escape in it form the nucleus from which the world was re-peopled. On the other hand, we have Deucalion and his wife, Pyrrha, escaping the wrath of Jove, also induced by the crimes of man, in a ship built by the advice of Prometheus, and at the lessening of the waters we find the ship in which the pair were saved, and who afterwards become the renewers of the human race, left high and dry on the summit of Mount Parnassus. The cause of the flood in both cases was the wickedness of man, the mode of the escape was precisely the same, and the result of salvation from the doom which overtook the rest of mankind was the re-peopling of the world. The minor points of difference are trivial; and, indeed, it is surprising how much harmony there is between the two accounts, when it is considered how much time had elapsed since the occurrence of the notable event that is told in both.

Deucalion is said to have had a son called Hellen, from

whom the Greeks were collectively called Hellenes, or, at all events, such is the mode by which the Greek writers attempted to account for the name which was given to the people at large. Hellen had three sons, Dorus, Æolus, and Xuthus, and to this last-named grandson of Deucalion were born two boys, Achæus and Ion. These youths and their uncles, Dorus and Æolus, became the founders of the four principal tribes into which the Greeks were divided—namely, the Dorians, Æolians, and Ionians, who, although they spoke the same language, uttered it with accentuations as different as those which distinguish the speech of Englishmen from Devonshire, Somersetshire, Lancashire, and Yorkshire, and moreover, had marked points of difference in character and customs.

These tribes or races came to occupy different parts of Greece. In early ages the Dorians, though they subsequently played a much more conspicuous part in the history of Greece, were confined to the little corner assigned to Doris, between Æolia and the country of the Locri. The Æolians spread over the whole of the mainland of Greece, except Doris and Attica, and held possession of the islands of Corcyra, Ithaca, Cephallenia, Zacynthus, &c., and the west coast of the Peloponnesus. The Ionians held the country along the south coast of the Corinthian Gulf and the peninsula of Attica; and the Achæans occupied the eastern and southern parts of the Peloponnesus. Remembering that the Arcadians were Pelasgi, it will now be easy enough to determine to which of the four great tribes of Greece the inhabitants of the different states belonged.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The deluge of Deucalion and Pyrrha, about..... B.C. 1503

#### 2. THE CONSTITUTION OF THE GREEK STATES.

Before entering further into the early history of Greece, it may be as well to see, as far as it can be determined, what was the constitution of the Greek states, and what were the manners, customs, and institutions of the people who inhabited them.

Like the United States of America or Switzerland, Ancient Greece consisted of a number of small states, but there the resemblance ends. In Greece the component parts were not



bound together by any bond of federal union as in the United States and Switzerland. Each state formed an independent republic, free to act without reference to the others. There was no Federal Council as in Switzerland, no Congress and Senate as in America to regulate a system of national government for the members of the body politic ; but each state was free to act as its people pleased in its relations with its neighbours and foreign countries. They might make war and conclude peace at will, and extend their power and influence at pleasure by colonisation. But although each state possessed complete sovereignty and freedom of action, it must not be supposed that there was no feeling of common nationality among the Greeks. On the contrary this was strong, and any attack from without on any single state generally provoked an angry response from the nation at large, which bestirred itself to meet the threatened danger, and elected to the command-in-chief of the army, formed for the purpose of contingents from each state, the best general of the state that happened to be taking the lead at the time.

It may be said that even the states themselves were divided into numerous republics, for we find even the people of a single city, and the land immediately surrounding it, acting independently of the rest, under the head or chief of the state, who is called a king, and who, although the principle of hereditary succession was recognised and carried out in most cases, was expected to possess either physical or mental qualifications, or both combined, calculated to render him a fitting leader of those over whom he held rule. Thus we may look on Greece in the olden times as a bundle of states loosely tied together by that bond of nationality which led them, as blood relatives and descendants from the common stock, to stand by one another shoulder to shoulder in time of foreign invasion, and to act together pretty unanimously, as in the case of the Trojan war, when it was necessary to carry war into an enemy's country to avenge any slight or wrong which, to have left unpunished, would have left a stain on the honour of the entire nation. Each state again consisted of a number of independent units of jurisdiction, often called kingdoms, bound together by a tie of relationship, a degree closer than that which linked the states to one another, to which was added the fact that they spoke a dialect which differed a little from the speech of the rest of the nation.

In the little communities which, as units, formed the sum total of Greece, the king was supreme. He was assisted in arranging matters relating to the common weal by a council composed of the leading men of the city; but his will was law, should his opinion differ from theirs. The citizens of each community were free and independent, and consisted of two classes; one which possessed property and employed others to work on their lands or sail their ships; and another whose members were obliged to work for wages to supply their daily wants. But, although those who composed this second class were labourers, they were free to work for whom they pleased, and might rise, if fortune favoured them, into the higher class of owners of property. They were not bound to do the will and pleasure of their masters implicitly, as the slaves who were taken in war, but who were only to be met with in the households of the king and his nobles, and were generally treated with kindness and consideration.

As the king was supreme in the community, so the father was supreme in the family, and every member of the household yielded implicit obedience to him. While the men employed their time in tilling the ground, rearing and feeding cattle, fishing, hunting, and making defensive armour and weapons, the women were busy spinning yarn and weaving cloth, and performing household work within doors. It was their duty, too, to wait on strangers, to prepare the bath for them, and, if there were need of it, to supply them with clothing, while their own garments, worn and stained with travel, were being washed and mended. Hospitality was freely exercised to all comers, the wayfarer was freely admitted as a guest, and furnished with bed and board and everything that his necessities required. Savage and ferocious in war, quick to take offence and prone to revenge, the ancient Greeks seem to have been inspired with kindly manners and customs at home, and to have been temperate in their habits. Men and women were, generally speaking, alike industrious, from the highest to the lowest in social rank, and while the latter were distinguished for exemplary virtue and chastity, the former were spirited and brave, even to a fault. Such were the Greeks of the early ages.

## 3. LEGENDS AND TRADITIONS OF OLD GREECE.

The period at which the history of Greece really commences, that is to say, on which any dependence may actually be placed on the truth of the events that are recorded, seems to be the epoch which is distinguished as the "Return of the Heraclidæ," and of which more will be said hereafter. This event happened in 1104 B.C., and although we may regard with doubt many things that are said to have taken place subsequently for a considerable length of time, yet the accounts of events said to have occurred prior to it must be looked on as mere legends and traditions, in which a few grains of truth lay widely scattered amid the romance by which they are obscured. Thus, in the first section of this chapter it has been shown how the four tribes known as the Dorians, Æolians, Achæans, and Ionians held all Greece, and this is just the single grain of truth that can be extracted from the tradition of Deucalion, and which seems to have been invented by the Greeks of this period, and woven in with the fast fading remembrance of the Noachic flood, which had been handed down orally from generation to generation, to account in some way for their first origin. And in this light many things that are about to be related must be regarded.

1. *The oldest Greek City.*—The earliest event recorded even in legendary Greek history, is the foundation of Sicyon, the most ancient kingdom of Greece, which is said to have been established by Ægialeus. It was **2089**  
situated in the north-eastern corner of the Pelopon- **B.C.**  
nesus, on the shore of what is now called the Bay of Corinth. It was bounded on the west by the state of Achaia, and on the east by the isthmus which connects the peninsula with the mainland. The country abounded with corn, vines, olive trees, and other grains and fruits, and contained rich iron mines. Ægialeus, as it has been said, was the first sovereign of Sicyon, after whom came twenty-five kings in succession. In 1201 B.C. it was conquered by Agamemnon. There is a curious story in connection with Sicyon, and the invention of drawing, which may be given here. A maiden of Sicyon was betrothed to a youth of her native city, who was on the eve of departure on some expedition. While sitting together one evening, the girl noticed the shadow of the profile of her

lover, which was thrown on the wall by the lamp that lighted the room. Bidding him to retain his position, and, taking a piece of charcoal, she hastily traced a line round the edge of the shadow, and obtained by this means a rough likeness of him. This, said the Greeks, was the origin of drawing. The future history of Sicyon will be given hereafter. (See page 66.)

2. *Uranus and the Titans*.—The foundation of Sicyon is placed at a date anterior even to the beginning of the career of the deities, who are numbered in the Greek mythology. Its establishment is doubtless due to the Pelasgians, the race that immediately preceded the Hellenes, or descendants of the sons and grandsons of Hellen. Ouranos and his wife Gea arrived in Greece about forty-five years after, and became the father of the giant Titans, who became involved in wars with the gods of Mount Olympus,

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B.C. the principal of whom were Jupiter, Juno, Mars, Venus, Apollo, Diana, Vulcan, Mercury, Neptune, and Pluto. These deities were invented, in all probability, by the Hellenes, and supplanted an earlier set of gods, of whom Ouranos and Gea, and their son Saturn, or Chronos, were the chief. But among the Greeks the gods were supposed to be inspired with all the passions common to men, and the older deities were subverted by Jupiter and his brothers, Neptune and Pluto, who were the children of Saturn. The war of the Titans against the gods was waged in an endeavour to overthrow the supremacy of Jupiter, which proved fruitless.

3. *Inachus and Danaus*.—A long period occurs before the foundation of Argos by Inachus is mentioned, and probably

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B.C. the story of the war between the gods and the giants was invented to fill up the gap of more than two hundred years that occurs between the building of this city and Sicyon. The state of Argos, or Argolia, was situated in the east of the Peloponnesus. The establishment of the kingdom is ascribed to Inachus, who is represented as a son of Oceanus and Tethys, deities of the sea; but the building of the city of Argos is assigned to Argos, the fourth of the Inachidæ, or kings descended from Inachus. The date of the building of the city is fixed at 1711 B.C. It is said that Messenia once formed part of Argos, but that it was seized by Polycaon in 1552, who called it thus after his wife. Long before this, however—long before Argos itself was built

by the great-grandson of Inachus, Ogyges had been reigning in Boeotia, and the deluge of Ogyges had taken place (1764 B.C.). Time passed on, and about 1500 B.C., fifty years after the time when the Hellenes are said to have taken possession of the greater part of Greece, Danaus, an Egyptian prince, is said to have landed at Argos with his fifty daughters, who had fled with their father from their native land because they were averse to marrying the fifty sons of their uncle Ægyptus, who was king of the country that bore his name. Danaus, in 1475 B.C., deposed Gelanor, king of Argos, and took possession of his throne. The report of his success reached Egypt, and the fifty Egyptian princes sailed to Greece in quest of their cousins. Arriving there, the nuptials were celebrated, but Danaus fearing an old prophecy that he would fall by the hand of one of his sons-in-law, ordered his daughters to murder their husbands. All obeyed him except Hypermnestra, who spared the life of her husband Lynceus. Danaus died about 1425 B.C., and was succeeded by his son-in-law. Another story says that Danaus quitted Egypt in order to avoid being present at the marriage of his daughters with their cousins—a connection which was considered by him to be unlawful and impious. The ship in which he arrived was the first that had ever been seen in Greece, and he is said to have introduced the use of pumps. Most probably the simple truth is that he was an Egyptian of considerable mechanical skill, who, for some reason or other, quitted his native country and emigrated to Greece, where he taught his new friends many useful things, and was doubtless regarded by them as a benefactor.

4. *Pelops and his Descendants.*—After the death of Lynceus, the kingdom of Argos was divided between the brothers Acrisius and Pratus, and Perseus, the grandson of Acrisius, is said to have founded Mycenæ about 1313 B.C. The building of this city is also attributed, and with more reason, to Pelops, a wealthy prince of Phrygia in Asia Minor, who emigrated to Greece and obtained supremacy over a part of Argos. The terrible crimes that were committed by the descendants of Pelops formed favourite subjects with the old Greek tragedians. Pelops married Hippodamia, the daughter of Ænomaus, king of Pisa, and had by her a numerous family, among whom were Atreus and Thyestes. By the persuasion of their mother, they murdered their half-brother, Chrysippus, his father's fa-

avourite, and, being suspected of the crime, were banished by Pelops. They retired to Argos, where Atreus married *Ærope*, the daughter of Eurystheus, king of Argos, who had married a sister of Atreus. On the death of Eurystheus Atreus succeeded him on the throne. The sons of Atreus were Agamemnon and Menelaus, but some authorities assert that they were his grandsons, being the children of his son Plisthenes. Menelaus married the beautiful Helen, who became the cause of the Trojan war (see page 18); and Agamemnon married Clytemnestra, and became the commander-in-chief of the Greek forces engaged in this expedition. On his return he was murdered by his wife, at the instigation of her paramour, *Ægisthus*, in 1183 B.C. His death was avenged by his son Orestes, who slew his mother and the man—a kinsman, too—who had counselled the murder and usurped his father's throne.

5. *Hercules and the Heraclidæ*.—In the middle of the thirteenth century, Eurystheus, whose name has recently been mentioned, was reigning at Argos, and being older than Hercules by a few weeks, he exercised mastery over him for some years, in obedience to the orders of Jupiter, who had decreed that which ever of the two happened to be the younger should serve the elder. It happened that Eurystheus was born first, and thus gained authority over the famous Greek hero and demigod, who became the Greek type of manly development and muscular strength. Hercules was the reputed son of Jupiter and Alcmena, the wife of Amphitryon, king of Thebes, the Greeks transferring his paternity from his actual father to the chief of the gods, as it seemed incredible to them that such a hero could be the son of a simple mortal. The feats performed by Hercules at the bidding of Eurystheus were twelve in number, and are commonly known as his twelve labours. Among the most noteworthy of them was the destruction of the Nemean lion and the Lernaean hydra, or water-snake, the cleansing of the stables of Augeas, king of Elis, by turning a river through them, the acquisition of some of the golden fruit that grew in the gardens of the Hesperides, and the bringing to earth of Cerberus, the three-headed dog that guarded the entrance to the realms of Pluto. He married Deianeira, by whom he had a son called Hyllus, and whose jealousy caused his death, which is supposed to have occurred about 1210 B.C. After this, Eurystheus showed such bitter

hostility to Hyllus and the other children of Hercules, who were many in number, that they were forced to leave the Peloponnesus and retreat into Attica. There they were hospitably received by Theseus, who was at that time reigning over that part of the country, and receiving assistance from him, Hyllus and his brothers invaded the Peloponnesus. Eurystheus fell in battle by the hand of Hyllus, and his dominions became the possessions of the Heraclidæ by right of conquest. Their victory was followed by a pestilence, which, it was declared by an oracle which they consulted to ascertain its cause, was sent by the gods because they had returned to the Peloponnesus too quickly. They must not attempt to come back thither, it said, until the third harvest had been reaped. By this was meant the death of the third generation from, and including Hyllus, but the Heraclidæ interpreted it literally, and after the third summer, until which they remained peaceably in Attica, they made another descent on Argos. Atreus was then on the throne, and having accepted the challenge of Hyllus to meet him in single combat, he fought with him and killed him, and the Heraclidæ again quitted the peninsula. The subjugation of the Peloponnesus was finally achieved by Aristodemus, Temenus, and Cresphontes, the great-grandchildren of Hyllus, as will be explained more fully presently (see page 80) in 1104 B.C. The invasion and subjugation of the Peloponnesus at this period was accomplished by the Dorians, who migrated southward, and it seems as if they had invented the whole story in after years to give a greater degree of substantiality to their claims on the country they had conquered. They had, in fact, if all that was said about Hercules and his descendants were true, merely asserted their right by force of arms to what was really their own by virtue of a previous conquest, which they had been prevented from enjoying hitherto by the will of the gods.

6. *Cecrops in Attica*.—It appears that the early Greeks benefitted considerably by the assistance afforded them by emigrants from eastern countries, and notably from Egypt. Danaus, coming from this country, had doubtless taught them many useful mechanical contrivances, and Pelops, from Phrygia, had given an impetus to agriculture, internal trade and commerce, and the building art, by the dissemination of the wealth that he brought with him. The Peloponnesus was

the field of their exertions, but parts of the mainland of Greece were also improved by the wisdom and teaching of foreigners, and among these was Attica and Boeotia. In Attica Cecrops, an Egyptian, is said to have taken

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B.C.

up his residence about sixty years before Danaus entered Greece. He found the inhabitants rude and unpolished, and scattered about the country in isolated huts. He introduced the arts of civilisation and the religious worship of Egypt, instituting the culture of Athene or Minerva, a deity which is said to resemble in her attributes the Egyptian goddess Neith, and taught the people agriculture. He also brought them together, or at all events a great number of them, into twelve villages in the immediate neighbourhood of the spot where Athens now stands, and to these hamlets he gave the collective name of Athens. He died after a long and useful reign of fifty years, and was succeeded on the throne by Cranaus, a native of the country. It will be noticed that the date assigned for the arrival of Cecrops in Attica, agrees very nearly with the conquest of Greece by the Hellenes. The Pelasgians were altogether an inferior race to the new comers, and although they are said to have been driven into the highlands of Arcadia from the mainland and the coasts of the peninsula, it is probable that many, if not most, of the lower classes remained on the soil which the Hellenes conquered, and that the improvements that the new comers introduced into the internal organisation of the district led to the story of Cecrops and the benefit that resulted to the country from his coming.

7. *Cadmus in Boeotia*.—Soon after Cecrops settled in Africa, an emigrant from Phoenicia, Cadmus by name, established himself in Boeotia. To him is attributed the introduction of the art of writing into Greece. It is well known that the

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Phoenicians were in advance of the inhabitants of the world in its early days in the arts of civilisation, and had invented a series of written characters by which vocal sounds could be expressed. It is therefore very probable that some wanderer from his native country, in search of better fortunes in another land, should have furnished the Greeks, as Cadmus is said to have done, with so important an aid in the acquisition of knowledge. The story of Cadmus, as told by the old Greek writers, is romantic enough. He was the son of Agenor, a king of



Phœnicia, and his sister was the beautiful Europa, after whom the continent of Europe is fancifully said to be named. Jupiter, under the form of a milk-white bull, decked with garlands of flowers, had inspired Europa with a wish to mount on his snowy back, and had thus swam across the Bosphorus with her, and carried her into Europe. The father, distressed at the loss of his daughter, ordered Cadmus to go in search of her, and never return unless he could find her and bring her back with him. His quest was fruitless, and he was led by the oracle of Apollo to settle in Bœotia, where he underwent many trials before he was permitted to settle there in peace. On looking once more at Cadmus, Cecrops, Danæus, and Pelops, we find that the first taught science, the second agriculture, and the third mechanics, while the fourth, by a proper dissemination of his wealth, gave an impetus to the industry of man, and the culture of all the useful arts. The Greeks were a highly imaginative race, fond of clothing everything, however prosaic it may appear, when viewed calmly and dispassionately, in the rainbow-tinted garments of poetry and romance. It is just possible, then, that the men we have just named were merely types in the guise of men of learning, agriculture, mechanical skill, and riches rightly applied, and as the origin of these matters, as far as Greece was concerned, was involved in mystery, the Greeks, who were fond of attributing a beginning to everything, whether in heaven or in earth, chose this plan of accounting for the rise of literature, agriculture, and mechanical science in their country, and showing how much the right use of wealth would benefit any community. The student must not assume that this was actually so; the idea has been offered as a suggestion, which, after all, may possibly not be very far off the mark.

8. *The Argo and the Argonauts.*—Following the same train of thought, the story of the good ship Argo and the Argonauts, or sailors of the Argo that formed her crew, may be nothing more than a fanciful exposition of maritime enterprise, adventure, and discovery, and its wonderful results. The Argo, according to the statements of most authors, was the first ship ever built in Greece, and was constructed for the recovery of the golden fleece. This valuable fleece had formed the skin of a winged ram, on whose back Phryxus and Helle, the children of Athamas, king of Thebes,

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and his second wife, Nephele, escaped from the plots contrived against their life by Ino, whom Athamas had divorced to marry Nephele. In crossing the Hellespont, Helle fell off and was drowned, and gave her name to the piece of water in which she met her death. Phryxus, however, arrived in safety at Colchis, and offered up the ram as a sacrifice to Mars. He married Chalciope, the daughter of *Æetes*, king of Colchis, but was murdered by his covetous father-in-law, who hankered after the golden fleece. About this time *Æson*, king of Thessaly, was murdered by his brother *Pelias*, in order to obtain the kingdom, and when *Æson's* son, *Jason*, sought from his uncle *Pelias* the restitution of the crown, the usurper said he would resign it in his favour when he brought home the golden fleece. On this *Jason* built the *Argo*, and collected a crew, which consisted of the most notable heroes of the day in Greece, as may be imagined when it is said that *Hercules* was one of the number. *Theseus*, the celebrated Athenian hero, whose achievements were second only to those of *Hercules* in point of importance, and who is said to have been the actual founder of the state of Attica, by uniting the twelve villages founded by *Cecrops* into a single state, was among them, and *Æsculapius*, subsequently the Greek god of the healing art. By the aid of *Medea*, the daughter of *Æetes*, who was an enchantress, *Jason* obtained possession of the fleece, and sailed homewards with it, taking *Medea* with him as his wife. Her brother, *Absyrtus*, tried to stop the fugitives, but was killed and cut to pieces by *Jason*. After a number of adventures, similar to those which are told in the *Arabian Nights*, and books of a like character, the *Argonauts* reached Thessaly in safety. After living many years with *Medea* in perfect happiness, *Jason* forsook her for *Glauce*, daughter of the king of Corinth, in which country they took up their residence after leaving Thessaly. *Medea*, maddened with jealousy, murdered her children before the eyes of her husband, who wandered about in an unsettled and melancholy state until he was crushed to death by one of the timbers of the ship *Argo*, which fell on his head as he was sleeping by the vessel's side.

9. *The Trojan War*.—The story of the Trojan War is told at length in the *Iliad* of the blind Greek poet *Homer*, while the story of the wanderings of *Ulysses*, king of Ithaca, and one of the Greek princes, that took

1193

B.C.

a leading part in it, is given in its sequel, the *Odyssey*. We are now approaching closely to the verge of reliable Greek history, and there is no doubt that a war took place between the Greeks and the inhabitants of the Troad, in the north-western corner of Asia Minor, although the cause to which it is ascribed may be fictitious, while most of the events and episodes described in the *Iliad* must be so. At this time Priam was king of Troy, and among his children was a beautiful boy, called Paris, who was brought up as a shepherd on Mount Ida. A dispute had occurred between Juno, Minerva, and Venus, with regard to good looks, each claiming superiority over the others in this respect, and when the matter was referred to Paris, he decided in favour of Venus, who promised him as his wife the most beautiful woman in the world. Helen, the daughter of Leda, was considered by every one to have the best claim to pre-eminence for personal beauty at this period, and there was scarcely a prince in Greece who had not been a suitor for her hand before her marriage to Menelaus, king of Sparta. When this event took place, the Greek princes bound themselves by a solemn oath to avenge any attempt to deprive Menelaus of his beautiful wife; and when Paris persuaded her to leave her husband, and accompany him to Troy, all the Greeks rose in arms to punish him for his perfidy. Agamemnon, king of Argos, and brother of Menelaus, was elected commander-in-chief of the united Greek troops, to which contingents were furnished by the wise and cunning Ulysses of Ithaca, the invincible and invulnerable Achilles of Thessaly, the aged Nestor of Pylos, and a hundred other contemporary Greek princes and chiefs. After the commencement of the siege, the war languished for nine years, and in the tenth year a quarrel arose between Achilles and Agamemnon about the possession of a slave that had been taken in war, and the former refused to fight any longer with his comrades against Troy. On the death of his friend Patroclus, however, Achilles took the field once more, and Hector, the famous champion of the Trojans, fell a victim to his prowess. Yet the siege of the well-defended city seemed no nearer than before, and at last recourse was had to stratagem to bring about a result that all the valour of Greece had hitherto failed to accomplish. The Greeks announced to the Trojans that they were about to give up the war and leave the country, and

asked permission to send into the city a huge wooden horse, that they had vowed to present as an offering to Minerva. Glad to get rid of the enemy, that had threatened their city so long with destruction, and anxious to propitiate the departing foe, the Trojans admitted the horse within the walls. Within its wooden sides were hidden the flower of the Greek warriors, fully armed, and when night came on, and the Trojans slept, overcome with feasting and revelry, they stealthily quitted their lurking-place, and swarming down the legs of the fatal image, unbolted the gates, and threw them open to their expectant companions, who soon set the city on

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fire, and began the work of spoil and slaughter. Few lived of the Trojans to see the morning dawn over the expiring embers of the doomed city, but among these was Æneas, who, after numerous adventures, is said to have found a new home in Italy. There were not many of the Greek chiefs who effected a speedy return to their native country, or enjoyed a peaceful existence after their return. Ulysses, according to Homer, was ten years in getting back to Ithaca; and Agamemnon, on arriving at Argos, was murdered, as it has been related, by his faithless wife and her paramour, Ægisthus. This is the last of the portions of Greek legendary history that it is necessary to relate, and in introducing them it has been sought to show what the Greeks regarded as the early history of their nation, and how they sought to embellish it with marvels suggested by their exuberant fancy, rather than to place it before the student as records of events that veritably and indubitably took place as related.

#### 4. THE NATIONAL FESTIVALS OF OLD GREECE.

The ancient Greeks were keenly alive to the advantages of excellence in mental intellect, muscular strength and activity, and physical beauty, and were quick to recognise merit in any form. We have seen that in the earliest ages they assigned pre-eminence in the little commonwealths of which the nation was composed to the men who were best fitted to become the leaders of their fellows; and as time passed on, this readiness to recognise intellectual superiority, as well as physical excellence, had much to do with the transformation of the peculiar kinds of monarchies that first existed among them into the democracies of a later date. The Greek states and communi-

ties were never monarchies in our sense of the word, but were always republics, in which the helm of government was always entrusted to him who was best fitted to grasp it, and who was dignified with the title of king. Later on, as we shall see, when some of these kings, who exercised after all but a very limited species of monarchy, sought to strengthen their position, and extend their power for the sake of personal aggrandisement, the very semblance of kingship was done away with ; and supreme power in the state was taken into the hands of the people at large, who appointed officers to form the executive, and deprived them of office at pleasure.

It was a settled maxim with the Greeks that the best man should ever hold the first place, and this was carried out in every department of human life—"in arms, in arts, and song." Beauty and vigour, sensual and intellectual, in man or woman, was regarded with marked admiration and respect, and their artists, especially the sculptors, noting the outward signs of form and feature that betokened, or were supposed to betoken, great mental power in either sex, grace and elegance of form and beauty of face in woman, and muscular development in man, sought to transfer them even to exaggeration to the images of their gods, whom they imagined to be inspired with all the passions that are found in the heart of men. So highly was excellence in art of any kind esteemed, that national festivals were instituted and held at stated intervals, at which not only did the youth of Greece compete for prizes in trials of skill and strength, but lyric poets and tragedians vied with each other in mental exercises of a higher order. These great national meetings were, taking them in the order of their establishment, the Olympic, Isthmian, Pythian, and Nemean Games. There was another festival which demands brief notice, although it was not a national one—the Panathenæan Games, which were peculiar to Athens, and confined to the people of Attica. It is not improbable that these games served as a model for the others, as, according to our received system of chronology, they were the first that were instituted.

1. *The Panathenæan Games.*—These were festivals in honour of Minerva, the patron goddess of Athens. They were first instituted by Erechtheus, the sixth king of Athens, from Cecrops, about 1495, B.C., and were then called the Athenæan Games : but after their revival, about 1234 B.C.,

by Theseus, who incorporated the twelve villages, or tribes, of the Athenians into one city, they received the name of the Panathenæa. Of this festival there were two kinds, the Greater Panathenæa, kept every fifth year, in the month Hecatombæon, which answers to our July; and the Lesser Panathenæa, which were observed annually in the month Thargelion, which corresponds to our May. In the lesser festivals, as they were conducted at a later period, there were three games, conducted by presidents chosen one from each of the Athenian tribes, and who continued four years in office. On the evening of the first day there were races with torches, in which men contended on foot and on horseback. The same was also exhibited at the greater festivals. The second contest consisted of a competition in games involving bodily strength and skill, and the third, which was instituted by Pericles, a trial of skill in playing on musical instruments. In the course of the festival a representation of a sea-fight was given at Sunium. There was also a dance performed by boys dressed in armour, in commemoration of the share of Minerva in the victory of the gods over the Titans, and the celebration concluded with a sacrifice to the goddess of oxen, of which one was contributed by each tribe; and a public entertainment to the citizens, in which the flesh of the oxen thus sacrificed to Minerva was eaten. The conquerors in the games were rewarded with a vessel of oil and a crown of olive, taken from the trees that grew in the groves of Academus, and were sacred to Minerva. During the celebration every one was obliged to attire themselves in white garments. In the greater festivals the same rites and ceremonies were observed, but with more solemnity and magnificence; and these were also distinguished by a great procession, in which the *peplus*, or white robe of Minerva, embroidered in gold, with the achievements of herself and the other heathen deities, was carried about the city, and finally placed on her statue, in the Acropolis, or citadel of Athens, the statue, after being adorned in this manner, being laid on a couch strewn with flowers.

2. *The Olympic Games.*—These celebrated games are said to have received their name either from Olympia, where they were observed, or from Jupiter Olympius, to whom they were dedicated. Olympia was a town of Elis, in the Peloponnesus, where Jupiter had a temple and a celebrated statue, fifty

cubits in height, which was reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world. The games, according to some writers, were instituted by Jupiter after his victory over the Titans, and were first observed by the priests of Jupiter called the *Idæi Dactyli*, in 1453 B.C., while others assert, with better reason probably, that they were first established by Hercules after a victory obtained over Augeas, king of Elis, in 1222 B.C. After their first celebration they were neglected, and fall into desuetude, until their revival at Elis by Iphilius; but even then they were not observed with regularity for more than a hundred years after, when Corcebus, who had obtained a signal victory over other competitors, caused them to be observed once in every four years, or, in other words, at the commencement of every period of four years. These periods were called Olympiads, and the occurrence of notable events was computed not only by the Greeks, but by neighbouring nations, by them. Thus an event which happened in 776 B.C., such as the celebration of these games, would be said by the Greeks to have happened in the first year of the first Olympiad, and so on. The first year of the second Olympiad was 772 B.C., the fourth and last year of the first Olympiad having been 773 B.C.; the first year of the third Olympiad was 768 B.C., while the fourth began in 764 B.C., the fifth in 760 B.C., the tenth in 740 B.C., &c., &c.\* The care and superintendence of the games were entrusted to the people of Elis, till they were excluded by the men of Pisa, after the destruction of their city, 364 B.C. The celebration of the games within their territory conferred on them peculiar privileges, amongst which was immunity from war. At first no women were permitted to appear among the spectators, but in later times they not only witnessed the contests, but appeared among the competitors in the arena. The preparations for

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\* To ascertain in what Olympiad any event happened, before Christ after the year 776 B.C., subtract the date B.C. from 776, and divide by 4, and the result will show the number of the Olympiad in which it took place. If there be no remainder, it will be in the first year of the Olympiad, while the remainders, 1, 2, and 3, will indicate the second, third, and fourth years of the Olympiad. Thus, to find in what year of what Olympiad Rome was built, subtract 753 from 776, which gives 23. Divide 23 by 4, which gives a result of 5, with a remainder of 3. Rome, therefore, was built in the last or fourth year of the fifth Olympiad.

these festivals were very great. No person was permitted to enter the lists if he had not exercised himself at the public gymnasium in Elis during the year preceding the celebration of the games. No unfair dealing was allowed, and whosoever attempted to bribe his adversary was subjected to a severe fine. No criminals, nor such as were connected with persons guilty of impiety, or any heinous crime, were suffered to present themselves as combatants; and even the father of the aspirant for Olympic honours, and his relatives, were obliged to swear that they would have recourse to no artifices which might decide the victory in favour of their friend. The combatants were ranged in pairs by lots, for wrestling, boxing, and similar contests, and, in addition to these, running, leaping, and throwing the discus, or quoit, were also exhibited, these five kinds of athletic sports forming what was called the *pentathlon*, or five labours of the ring. Besides these, there were horse and chariot races, and also competitions in poetry, eloquence, and the fine arts. The only reward accorded to the conquerors was a crown or garland of olive; but the prize, though being of no intrinsic value, tended to stimulate courage and virtue, and was more the source of great honour than prizes of the greatest value could be. The statues of the conquerors, called *Olympionicæ*, were erected at Olympia in the sacred wood of Jupiter. Their return home was similar to that of a general who had been successful in war: they were enthroned on a chariot drawn by four horses, and were everywhere received with shouts of applause. Instead of being admitted to their native city through the gates, a breach was made in the city walls, through which they entered. As these Olympia were the most ancient and the most solemn of all the national festivals of the Greeks, it will not appear wonderful that they drew so many people together, not only from all parts of Greece, but also from the neighbouring country and islands. The computation by Olympiads is supposed to have been abandoned at the close of the 304th, in 440 A.D.

3. *The Isthmian Games*.—This festival was a sacred one among the Greeks, and the games that were celebrated during its continuance took their name from the Isthmus of Corinth, where they were observed. They are said to have been instituted in the first place about 1406 B.C. by Sisyphus in honour of Melicerta, a son of Athamas and Ino. Athamas attempted



to murder his child, on which his mother clasped him in her arms and sprang with him into the sea, where the pair were changed by Neptune into sea deities. Another account says that the body of Melicerta was cast on shore, and the games were celebrated for the first time at the performance of his funeral rites. After a few years, during which they were observed with regularity, they were dropped until 1236 B.C., when they were re-instituted by Theseus with great magnificence in honour of the sea god Neptune. These games were observed, like the Olympian games, every fifth year, or at the recurrence of periods of four years each, and were held so sacred and inviolable that even a public calamity was not permitted to hinder the celebration. Even when Corinth was destroyed by Mummius, the Roman general, 146 B.C., they were observed with the usual solemnity, and the people of Sicyon were entrusted with the preparation and superintendence, which had hitherto been carried out by the Corinthians. The combats and athletic sports exhibited at these games were similar to those of the Olympian games; but instead of a crown of olive, the victors received a garland of pine leaves, for which a chaplet of faded parsley was afterwards substituted. The Corinthians were accustomed to reckon by Isthmiads, as the Greeks generally recorded events according to the Olympiads.

4. *The Pythian Games.*—These were celebrated in honour of Apollo near the temple of Delphi, and were instituted, according to some writers, by Apollo himself, to commemorate his victory over the serpent Python, from which they received their name; although others assert that they were first established in 1263 B.C. by Agamemnon, or Diomedes, or by the great council of the Amphictyons, who met near Delphi, and at whose meetings matters were settled in reference to the religious observances of the country, and the mutual relations of the tribes and states. This council, in fact, was a sort of social parliament or assembly consisting of deputies from the communities, who consented to be bound by common rules for mutual defence and assistance. The Pythian games were celebrated at first only once in nine years, but subsequently at periods of four years each, in the second year of each Olympiad. Prizes were given, consisting of garlands of palm or beech for superiority in wrestling, boxing, chariot racing, running, and throwing the quoit; but at first it was a musical

contention, in which the competitors sang to music on the harp songs descriptive of Apollo's encounter with the serpent Pythian. Dances were also introduced, and it appears to have been a great sacred festival in honour of Apollo at first, to which games of bodily strength and skill were subsequently added.

5. *The Nemean Games.*—Nemea was a town of Argos, situated about midway between Cleonæ and Phlius, in the vicinity of a wood, where Hercules, while yet a youth, killed the famous Nemean lion, which infested the neighbourhood and kept the inhabitants in perpetual alarm. The games were at first instituted in honour of Archemorus, the infant son of Lycurgus and Eurydice, the king and queen of Nemea, whose nurse, Hypsipyle, had laid him on a tuft of parsley, when compelled by Adrastus, king of Argos, to show him a fountain at which he and his followers might quench their thirst. When Hypsipyle returned she found the child dead, having been poisoned by the venomous bite of a serpent. The Greeks, however, were always fond of going back as far as possible for the origin of everything, and it is most probable that the games were instituted by the man whose deeds gave rise to the tradition of Hercules in honour of some achievement at or near Nemea. It was said that the skin of the beast was impervious to any arrow, and its skull so thick that no blow from the club of Hercules had any effect on it, and that Hercules was obliged to throw down his weapons and strangle the lion. The Argives, the Corinthians, and the people of Cleonæ took it in turns to preside at the celebration of these games. The contests exhibited were precisely the same as those which were introduced at the other great games of Greece, and the rewards consisted, first of all, of chaplets of olive, and then of garlands of fresh parsley. The games were celebrated biennially on the first and third year of every Olympiad in the month Panemus, which corresponds to our August. The Argives computed time by Nemeads, or periods of two years. To give colour to the tradition which ascribed their original institution to the death of Archemorus, a funeral oration was pronounced at every meeting in his honour, and the judges who presided at the festival and presented the prizes to the combatants, were clad in garments which were used to denote mourning among the Greeks.

As the events and institutions which have been noticed in this chapter could not be described in due chronological order, it has been considered better to defer the summary to the conclusion of the chapter, instead of breaking it up into portions at the end of each section.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Sicyon founded by Egialeus .....	B.C. 2089	thenæan games by Erechtheus .....	B.C. 1495
Arrival and settlement of Ouranos, or Ura- nus, in Greece .....	2042	Foundation of City of Ephyre .....	1520
Revolt of the Titans, and wars of the Gods and Giants, about ...	1950	Institution of the Areo- pagus at Athens .....	1506
The kingdom of Argos founded by Inachus...	1856	Hellen, from whom Greece is called Hel- las, and the Greek Hellenes in power in the Peloponnesus.....	1459
Reign of Ogyges in Boeotia .....	1796	Foundation of Mycenæ ..	1457
The Pelasgi said to have entered the Pelopon- nesus, about.....	1700	The first Olympic games celebrated in Elis by the Idæi Dactyli .....	1453
Sacrifices of animals to the gods instituted by Phoroneus.....	1773	Ephyre rebuilt and called Corinth .....	1384
Sicyon founded (accord- ing to Lenglet).....	1773	The Eleusinian mys- teries in honour of Cybele, or Ceres, in- troduced at Athens...	1356
Deluge of Ogyges, by which Attica laid waste till the time of Cecrops.....	1760	Isthmian games institu- ted by Sisyphus, king of Corinth.....	1326
Arcadians under Eno- tus, said to have mi- grated to Italy, which is hence called Eno- tria.....	1710	Pelops from Phrygia settles in the Greek peninsula, which is called from him the Peloponnesus .....	1283
Chronology of the Arundelian marbles commences with the coming of Cecrops ...	1582	Argonautic expedition under Jason.....	1263
Kingdom of Athens founded by Cecrops, who came from Sais, in Egypt .....	1556	Pythian games insti- tuted in Argos.....	1263
Cadmus leaves Phœni- cia and settles in Boeotia .....	1493	The War of the Seven Captains against Thebes .....	1225
Deluge of Deucalion, about.....	1503	Olympic games cele- brated by Hercules...	1222
Institution of the Pana-		Marriage of Helen to Menelaus .....	1216
		Helen carried off by Paris of Troy .....	1214

Institution of the Nemean games.....	B.C. 1226	Capture and sack of Troy .....	B.C. 1184
The Heraclidæ or descendants of Hercules, expelled from the Peloponnesus .....	„ 1209	Migration of Æolians to Asia Minor .....	„ 1120
Commencement of the Trojan War .....	„ 1193	Return of the Heraclidæ, and recovery of the Peloponnesus by them .....	„ 1104

### CHAPTER III.

#### FROM THE RETURN OF THE HERACLIDÆ TO THE COLONIZATION OF ASIA MINOR.

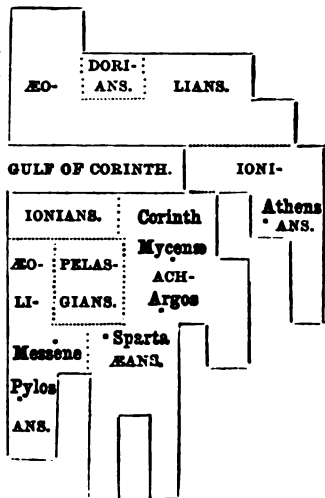
1104 B.C. to 1044 B.C.

##### 1. MOVEMENTS AND MIGRATIONS OF THE GREEK TRIBES.

BEFORE proceeding further it will be convenient to consider what facts we are really acquainted with respecting the history of Greece, when it is divested of the fable and romance of the legends and traditions which have been related. It is simply this. About 1700 B.C., the Pelasgi, a race that appears to have inhabited the Italian and Greek peninsulas at a comparatively early period of the world's history, were in possession of the mainland of Greece and the Peloponnesus, as it was subsequently called. About 1550 B.C., the Pelasgi were dispossessed by the Hellenes, a warrior race who came from the southern borders of Thessaly or Epirus, and compelled to retreat to the highlands of Arcadia, in the centre of the Peloponnesus. The Hellenes were divided into four sections or tribes, distinguished by difference of dialects, as it has been already explained. These four tribes were called Dorians, Æolians, Achæans, and Ionians. The Dorians occupied the country which afterwards became the little state of Doris, while the Æolians occupied the remainder of Northern Greece to the north of the Corinthian Gulf, with the exception of Attica. This peninsula, with the northern part of the Peloponnesus, was occupied by the Ionians, while the Achæans held the south and east. The western part, afterwards the states of Elis and Messina, and the islands now called the Ionian islands, were held by the Æolians. The territory of

the Ionians was not continuous from the entrance to the Gulf of Corinth to the extremity of the peninsula of Attica, for the Achæans held Corinth.

It is supposed that the period between 1200 B.C. and 1100 B.C. was a time of transition and revolution among the Greek communities of the Peloponnesus, and that a state of disorder prevailed which was followed by considerable political, and possibly social changes. The relative positions and territorial possessions of the tribes were wholly altered, and the alterations were such as induced emigration, to a considerable extent to Asia Minor on the east, and Italy on the west. The states of Greece, as shown in the map of Ancient Greece, it must be remembered, were not in existence at this period, but the mainland and Peloponnesus were divided in the manner that has been described. In fact, supposing the annexed diagram to show as fairly as can be done by a few straight lines, an approximation to the general shape of Northern Greece and the Peloponnesus, the disposition of the four great tribes of the Hellenes, was pretty nearly as shown therein. It will be found useful, too, in tracing the changes of territorial position that took place at the epoch which is known as the return of the Heracleidæ. The relative positions of Athens, Corinth, Mycenæ, Argos, and Sparta, the principal kingdoms of the Achæans, and Pylos, the most important kingdom of the Æolians, are also shown in it.



We now come to the Dorian invasion of the Peloponnesus, which, whenever it may have been commenced, was consummated about the close of the twelfth century before Christ. Leaving the limited tract of land in the north that they occupied, they pushed on to the south, as the Hellenes had done before them, and established

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themselves in the country on the eastern side of the Peloponnesus, that had been held so long by the Achæans. Their leaders were Temenus, Cresphontes, and Aristodemus, who doubtless chose to assert their descent from Hercules, in order to give themselves importance in the eyes of their followers and the conquered race. The story goes that the Dorians lent them assistance in return for benefits previously received from Hercules. Whether or not this were the truth, it is impossible to say. Tradition declares that it was so, but the probability is that the reputed descendants of Hercules were merely, as it has been assumed, the leaders of the Dorians in their raid on the south. It was eminently successful. Timæmenes, the grandson of Agamemnon, who reigned at Argos, was defeated, and the country of the Achæans was assigned to Temenus and the sons of Aristodemus, who had died on the way, the former taking Argos, and the latter Sparta. Messene was wrested from the Æolians of the Peloponnesus, and given to Cresphontes, who also took possession of Pylos. The northern part of the Æolian territory in the Peloponnesus was given to Oxylus, an Ætolian chief who had accompanied the Dorians with his followers, and most of the old inhabitants, soon amalgamated with their kinsmen of Ætolia, who were also Æolians. Corinth was conquered by Aletes, another of the so styled Heraclidæ, about 1074 B.C. Thus we find the whole of the eastern, western, and southern parts of the Peloponnesus, lying round Arcadia like a crescent, transferred from the Achæans and Æolians to the Dorians. The principal kingdoms in this wave-washed crescent were that under Oxylus, and Messene, Sparta, and Argos. What were the limits of these kingdoms it is impossible to determine. It is certain that they did not coincide with the boundaries of Elis, Messenia, Laconia, and Argolis, which were fixed at a later date, but it is possible that Oxylus ruled at Elis, and that the four cities thus enumerated took the lead in confederacies of communities whose extent approximated to those of the more modern states which have just been named.

When a country is conquered, the poorer classes, or rather those of the poorer classes who are entirely dependent on their labour for support, must submit to their new masters and toil for subsistence as heretofore, but those who have escaped the sword, and have been able to save any kind of portable wealth from being appropriated by the invaders, will leave

their native land and seek a home elsewhere. It was so with the Achæans, who hurried northwards and forced the Ionians, who occupied the southern shore of the Gulf of Corinth, to yield their territory to them. This narrow strip subsequently was called Achaia, from its new possessors. The Ionians, compelled to submit in their turn to the cruel fortune, or misfortune of war and foreign invasion, retreated through the isthmus and sought a refuge with their kinsmen in Attica. The usual results of large additions to the population of a country limited in extent, ensued. Over-crowding produced scarcity of food, and scarcity of food compelled recourse to emigration to lands and islands beyond the sea. The western coast of Asia Minor and the islands of the *Ægean Sea*, from Crete, northwards, to the coast of Thrace, were the nearest, and towards these the tide of emigration naturally set. The overplus of the Ionian population of Attica accordingly sailed due east, and after planting colonies on many of the group of islands known as the Cyclades, took possession of the coast of Lydia from the mouth of the Hermus in the north, to the mouth of the Mæander on the south. They occupied the country to a depth varying from twenty-five to fifty miles inland, and took possession of the large and fertile islands of Chios and Samos. To these and to the sea-coast that they had thus appropriated, they gave the name of *Ionia*.

The Achæans, who had been driven out of Argos and Sparta and other cities of that district, did not find the country of which they had dispossessed the Ionians of the west sufficiently large for them, and many of them were compelled to seek a resting-place elsewhere. Some of them went northwards to Bœotia, where a Thessalian tribe, called Bœotians, had settled soon after the Dorians had invaded the Peloponnesus, driving out the former inhabitants, who, as indeed were their successors, were of *Æolian* origin. When the Achæans came to Bœotia, they found it was useless to think of settling there, and joining a party of the old inhabitants and the new comers, they sailed to the east, as the Ionians did some years after, and after colonizing Lesbos, they took possession of the sea-coast of Asia Minor from the Gulf of Adramittium in Mysia, to the north bank of the Hermus in Lydia, and founding several cities, which formed a confederacy, for purposes of mutual assistance and defence,

called their new country *Æolia*, possibly because the bulk of the settlers were of *Æolian* origin.

The south-western corner of Asia Minor, and the contiguous islands of Cos, Rhodes, and others of the Sporades, were colonized by bands of adventurers composed of Achæans and Dorians, under Dorian chieftains. They founded *Halicarnassus* and other cities on the islands and coasts of *Caria*, which, from being six in number, were called the Dorian *Hexapolis*, or *Hexapolis* of *Caria*. *Crete* was colonised by Dorians and Achæans, and an impetus having been given to emigration and colonization, other bands sailed westward and established settlements in *Sicily* and on the remoter shores of *Gaul* and *Spain*, to some of which, such as *Sicily*, a separate notice will be accorded.

In writing the history of a country that is composed of many independent states, loosely knit together by a mere bond of common origin and language, and religious belief and worship, it is difficult to hit on a plan that may describe fairly the vicissitudes of each and every state, and yet afford a clear and succinct history of the country at large. Among a number of states forming parts of a common country, there will always be a struggle for supremacy over the whole among those which happen to be most powerful; and the history of the country, from a national point of view, will be the history of those states which take the lead in general politics, throwing the minor states entirely into the background. Ancient Greece somewhat resembled Britain in the time of the Saxon Heptarchy, with this exception, that while in Britain, Egbert, king of Wessex, made his authority absolute over the rest of the Saxon kingdom, no Greek state absolutely succeeded in obtaining such thorough ascendancy over the rest as to assert dominion over the whole country. The most satisfactory plan appears to be to give a brief notice of the separate history of each state, first of those on the mainland, and then of those on the Peloponnesus, Athens and Sparta excepted, of which only the early history need be given separately, and then to proceed to a fuller description of those events which enabled Greece to resist the attacks of Persia, and brought it in subjection to, or under the control of, Epirus, Macedonia and Rome—an account which virtually embraces the history of Athens and Sparta, the leading state of Greece. By this means we shall obtain a special and distinct account of each minor state from



its earliest records to the time when individuality of action was no longer possible, and the whole country became a Roman province, and a more detailed general account of the national history of the gallant stand made by the nation at large against foreign aggression, the internecine quarrels that raged between Athens and Sparta for supremacy at home and abroad, the comparative insignificance into which the southern states sank under the brighter glory first of Epirus, and then of Macedonia, and lastly the untoward events that brought the country under the dominion of Rome.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The great Dorian invasion, called the "Return of the Heracleids" .....	B.C. 1104	Asia Minor. Settlement of Æolia, about B.C. 1100
Settlement of the Boeotians, emigrants from Thessaly, in Boeotia ..	1124	Settlement of the Ionians on the coast of Lydia in Asia Minor ..
Migration of Æolians and Achæans into		Settlement of the Dorians and Achæans in Cos, Rhodes, and the coast of Caria, about ..
		1040

## CHAPTER IV.

## THE STATES OF THE GRECIAN MAINLAND.

1556 B.C. to 510 B.C.

EXCLUSIVE of the larger and more important districts of Macedonia, Thessaly, and Epirus, which were to all intents and purposes Greek states, though not included in Ancient Greece, the states of the Grecian mainland, of whose history it is proposed to give a brief outline in the present chapter, were, being taken in due order of succession from north-west to south-east, Acarnania, Ætolia, Doris, Locris—or the country of the three tribes of the Locri—Phocis, Boeotia, Megaris, and Attica. Of the last-named, the details of the early and legendary history will only be given for reasons already stated.

## 1. ACARNANIA.

Acarnania was one of the most unimportant of the Greek

states. It is said to have derived its name from *Acarnas*, the son of *Alcmæon*, whose father, *Amphiaræus*,\* was one of the *Argonauts*, and perished in the expedition of the seven captains against *Thebes*. It occupied the most westerly part of the mainland, and was separated from *Ætolia*, which lay on the west, by the river *Achelous*. It was chiefly famous for its breed of horses, and was inhabited at an early period by tribes inferior to the other Greeks in respect to civilisation, among whom were the *Leleges*, *Curetes*, &c. Thievish and piratical, they lived chiefly by rapine and plunder. The *Achæans* are said to have formed some settlements on the coast, possibly after their expulsion from the southern and eastern parts of the *Peloponnesus* by the *Dorians*; and the *Corinthians* are reported to have done the same about 650 B.C. It was a free state, and the people lived in little villages which were united in a confederacy, the affairs of which were managed by a general assembly, consisting of delegates sent from each town, and presided over by a prætor. Each town had its own magistrates and officers of justice. Little is heard of the *Acarnanians* in the general history of Greece until the

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*Peloponnesian* war, when they supported the *Amphilochians*, who had been driven from *Argos* *Amphilochium*, a town of *Epirus*, by the *Ambraciots*, and, in conjunction with the people whose cause they had espoused, applied to the *Athenians* for aid against the victors, who were the people of *Ambracia*, a town on the *Ambracian Gulf*. The *Athenians* defeated the *Ambraciots*, who, in their turn, appealed to the *Spartans*, then at war with *Athens*. Victory, however, remained on the side of the *Acarnanians* and their

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allies in every encounter, and at last peace was concluded between *Acarnania* and *Ambracia* for a hundred years. The next time that *Acarnania* appears prominently is in 391 B.C., when the country was invaded by

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*Agésilæus*, king of *Sparta*, and compelled to submit to him. At a later period, when *Philip II.* of *Macedon* was threatening the liberties of Greece, the *Acarnanians* ranged themselves on his side, and were chastised

\* It is manifestly impossible to give a full account of every Greek hero of antiquity that is mentioned in these pages, and teachers and learners are referred for fuller details to *Lemprière's "Classical Dictionary,"* and *Dr. William Smith's "Dictionary of Greek and Roman Biography."*

by the Athenians, who sent an expedition against them. From 243 B.C. to 239 B.C., the Acarnanians were engaged in a desultory war with the Æolians, who took possession of a considerable part of their territory, and ceded it to Philip V. of Macedon, about 217 B.C., in order to put an end to the "Social War." Subsequently, when Philip V. was at variance with Rome, the Acarnanians took part with the former, but Lucius Flaminus, the brother of Titus Flaminus, to whom the conduct of the war was entrusted, undertook to engage them to espouse the interests of the Romans, and thus to deprive Philip of his most faithful allies. Accordingly, a meeting was held in the city of Leucas, the capital of Acarnania, where the principal men of the nation, after warm disputes, drew up the plan of a confederacy with the Romans; but the people being violently prepossessed against them, openly protested that they would not enter into any engagement prejudicial to Philip's interests.

Lucius, who in the commencement of the tumult had retired from Leucas, resolved to reduce the Acarnanians by force, and, having made the necessary preparations, he set sail from Corcyra and laid siege to the town. The inhabitants made a vigorous resistance, and defended the place with such resolution that the Romans were defeated in three successive attacks. At length, some Italian exiles who were well acquainted with the city, introduced a large force of Romans, who surrounded the Acarnanians, and put to the sword such as refused to submit. The reduction of the chief city so terrified the whole nation that they deserted Philip and submitted to the Romans, who left them in possession of their own laws till the destruction of Corinth, when Acarnania became part of the Roman province of Achaia (B.C. 146).

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B.C.

197  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Quarrel between the Ambraciots and Acarnanians, who support the Amphiloehians.		
Appeal of Acarnania to Athens for aid .....	B.C. 432	
The Ambraciots and their allies, the Spartans, defeated by the Acarnanians. Peace for 100 years between Ambracia and Acarnania .....		B.C. 426
Invasion of Acarnania by Agesilaus, king of Sparta .....		„ 391
Expedition sent from Athens against Acarnania .....		3—2

<p> <b>ania</b> for taking part  with Philip II. of Ma-  cedon ..... B.C. 343  <b>War between Acarnania</b>  <b>and Ætolia</b> (the latter  successful) from 243 to  The Ætolians cede ter-  ritory taken from the  Acarnanians to Philip  V. .... , 217 </p>	<p> Philip V. supported  against Rome by the  Acarnanians ..... B.C. 200  Leucas taken and Acar-  nania subdued by the  Romans ..... , 197  Acarnania becomes part  of the province of  Achaia ..... , 146 </p>
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## 2. ÆTOLIA.

This state is said to have derived its name from *Ætolus*, a son of Endymion, king of Elis. Having accidentally killed a son of Phoroneus of Argos, he quitted the Peloponnesus, and settled in the country which afterwards bore his name. Ætolia was situated between Acarnania on the west, and Doris and Locris on the east. The inhabitants were a stout and warlike people, who were seldom at peace with their neighbours, and signalised themselves by irruptions into the neighbouring states. They never, however, obtained any prominent part in the history of Greece until the formation of the political confederacy, called the Ætolian League, and Heeren says that "renowned as are the names of their earliest heroes, Ætolus, Peneus, Meleager, Diomed, the nation has no place in the history of the flourishing times of Greece.

It has been already said that Oxylus, an Ætolian chief, accompanied the Heraclidæ in their invasion of the Peloponnesus, and gained possession of Elis. After this time little is heard of Ætolia for about six hundred and fifty years, and then it is spoken of as taking part with Sparta against Athens, with which state Sparta was then at war (455 B.C.). It gave its name to the Ætolian League, a confederation of which it is difficult to trace the origin, although it is said that it was formed as early as 914 B.C. At all events, it existed in the time of Alexander the

Great, and probably took its rise in the time of his father, Philip II. of Macedon. When the Macedonian monarch showed a disposition to assert supremacy over Greece, the states of the Ætolian League joined the confederation of the Greek states, and embarked in the contest known as the Lamian war. In the year after (322 B.C.) the Greeks were defeated at Crannon, and the great con-

federacy of all the Greek states was dissolved, and the Macedonian generals, Craterus and Antipater, carried the war into Ætolia, but, after gaining a few advantages, found themselves obliged to retire. The war between the Acarnanians and the Ætolians, and its results, has been already related.

The states of the Ætolian League took an active part in the expulsion of the Gauls who had invaded Greece. In 220 B.C. the "Social War" commenced between the Ætolian League on the one hand, and the Achæan League on the other, and in the following year Philip V. of Macedon, who was in alliance with the Achæans, invaded Ætolia. In the beginning of the war the Ætolians had entered the Peloponnesus, laid waste Messenia, and defeated the Achæans at the battle of Caphyæ, but the appearance of Philip within the borders of their own country gave a complete change to the state of affairs. Thermum, where the Panætolicon, or great council of the confederate states, assembled every autumn, was taken and burnt, and the Ætolians surrendered a part of Acarnania that they had taken, and thus purchased peace (217 B.C.). The peace, however, was not permanent; another rupture soon ensued, and the Ætolians and Pyrrhus were again defeated by the Macedonians in the battle of Lamia.

The Ætolians were the first of the Greeks who suffered themselves to be persuaded by the perfidious insinuations of the Romans to enter into an alliance with them against Philip of Macedon. This ultimately led to an invasion of Ætolia by Philip six years later, when Thermum was again taken and sacked, and the Ætolians were compelled to make peace with Philip upon his own terms. In 200 B.C. the war broke out afresh, and Philip was defeated, three years later, by the Romans and Ætolians, at the battle of Cynocephalæ. At this juncture, when the Ætolians hoped that the Romans would assist them in prosecuting the war until they should have nothing more to fear from Macedon, they found themselves deceived and deserted by their faithless allies, who, thinking it more to their interest to make peace than to continue the war, concluded a treaty with Philip, regardless of the danger to which they exposed the Ætolians.

Dissatisfied with the conduct of the Romans and the peace which had been concluded, the Ætolians proposed that Anti-

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ochus, king of Syria, should be called into Europe to restore Greece, which was oppressed by the Romans, to its ancient liberty. This was done accordingly, and **192** Antiochus arrived in Greece with an army of **B.C.** 10,000 foot, 500 horse, and six elephants. His exertions, however, did not equal the hopes of the allies. He forgot, during many valuable months, Rome, Greece, and Syria, and passed his time in the company of a very young wife, whom he had married at an age already far beyond maturity. At length Antiochus was roused from his lethargy by the successes of the Romans, who drove him from post to post, and after defeating him with great loss at Thermopylae, obliged him to embark his troops.

The Ætolians being thus abandoned by the king of Syria, took refuge in their cities, which they defended with great vigour and resolution. They endeavoured to obtain an accommodation with Rome, whither they sent **191** ambassadors; but the senate proposed an alterna- **B.C.** tive that they should either submit to the will of the Romans, or pay the republic a thousand talents, and neither make peace nor commence war without the approbation of Rome. The Ætolians did not possess so much money, and if they submitted implicitly to the will of the senate, they were persuaded that Rome would not be content with that which they were willing to grant.

The Romans, therefore, took Lamia and other places, and commenced the siege of Ambracia, which was the last stronghold of the Ætolian republic. This city resisted **189** for a long time all the stratagems and machines **B.C.** which the Romans employed against it. At length the whole nation of the Ætolians was obliged to submit, give up all prisoners and deserters, pay a heavy fine, deliver forty hostages at the choice of the victors, and, in fine, yield to all the most humiliating and oppressive conditions which could be imposed upon a conquered and enslaved people. The Ætolian League was finally dissolved in 167 B.C., when the Roman party rose and massacred the chief of the patriots, who were initiating measures for throwing off the Roman yoke. The Ætolians then remained in a state of absolute slavery till the destruction of the Achaean League, when they followed the destinies of the other Greek states.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Ætolians enter into alliance with Sparta against Athens.....	B.C. 455	Ætolia, takes Thermum, and compels the Ætolians to make peace .....	B.C. 205
States of Ætolian League take part against Macedonia in Lamian war .....	„ 323	War again declared against Philip by the Romans and Ætolians ..	200
Battle of Crannon. Ætolia invaded by the Macedonians .....	„ 322	Philip defeated at Cyncephalæ. The Romans make peace with him, contrary to the wish of the Ætolians .....	„ 197
The Ætolians take part in the expulsion of the Gauls from Greece ...	„ 279	The Ætolians call Antiochus to their aid and challenge Rome .....	„ 192
Commencement of Social War. Ætolians invade the Peloponnesus .....	„ 220	Defeat of Antiochus at Thermopylæ, and his withdrawal from Greece .....	„ 191
Philip V. of Macedonia invades Ætolia. Capture and sack of Thermum followed by peace with the Macedonians ..	„ 217	The Ætolians, everywhere defeated, make peace with Rome, and become subject to the republic .....	„ 189
States of the Ætolian League enter into an alliance with Rome ...	„ 211		
Philip again invades			

## 3. DORIS.

The little state of Doris, which penetrated like a wedge between Ætolia and Locris, and towards the north separated these states which had been conterminous from the north shore of the Gulf of Corinth, is famous only for being the spot from which issued the Dorian race, which subdued the greater part of the Peloponnesus, and changed the aspect of affairs in Greece in 1104 B.C. The mother of many great states and colonies, it never rose into importance itself. The country abounded with spacious and fertile plains, and the air was mild and salubrious. Though the Dorians inhabited a district that was for the most part mountainous, they were not as rough as mountaineers usually are, but were a polished race, from which sprung many good orators, poets, and musicians. The country gave its name to the Doric dialect, the Doric music, and the Doric order of architecture. War broke out about the beginning of the eighth century B.C. between the Dorians and Thebans, in which the latter were victorious; and in 458 B.C. a quarrel ensued with the Phocians who assaulted and took most of the Dorian towns.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Dorian invasion of the Peloponnesus under the Heraclidæ .....	B.C. 1104	War between Thebes and Doris, in which the Dorians are beaten, about .....	B.C. 800
Invasion of Attica and Corinth by the Dorians .....	1045	Dorians worsted in a war with the Phocians ...	458

## 4. LOCRI.

The country of the Locrians was divided into two parts by the intervention of Phocis. Part of it lay to the westward, on the north shore of the Gulf of Corinth, between Ætolia on the west and Phocis on the east, and part to the eastward, having Thessaly on the north, and Phocis and Bœotia on the east and south. The inhabitants of the country were divided into three tribes, of which the Locri Ozolæ, also called Epizephyrii, or Western Locri, from their geographical position, inhabited the western part, and the Locri Epicnemidii and Locri Opuntii the eastern part. The Locri Epicnemidii, who occupied the northern part of Eastern Locris, have the Gulf of Malea on the east, and Mount Æta on the north, were so called from Mount Cnemis, which lay within the limits of their territory. They alone of all the Locri had the privilege of sending representatives to the Council of the Amphictyons. The Locri Opuntii, who inhabited the southern part of the Eastern Locris, and the seaboard of the channel of the Euripus, received their name from their chief town Opus. The chief town of the Locri Ozolæ was Naupactus, on the Gulf of Corinth, a city celebrated from early times as one of the principal ship-building towns of the ancient Greeks. The Locri were a brave and warlike people, and ultimately becoming members of the Ætolian League, they signalled themselves by their efforts to maintain the independence of Greece. In early times the Eastern Locrians were distinguished from the inhabitants of the western part by being less rough and rude in manner, the latter being addicted, like the neighbouring Ætolians, to robbery and piracy. The Locri Ozolæ founded the city of Locri Epizephyrii in Italy, now called Gerace, at dates variously stated from 710 B.C. to 673 B.C. The people collectively are said to have derived their name from Locrus, a grandson of Amphictyon, and to have been



a tribe of the Leleges, a rude, uncultured people, who occupied at one time much of the western part of the mainland of Greece. They were not far advanced in civilisation at the time of the Peloponnesian War, when they agreed to assist the Athenians against the Ætolians, but subsequently entered into alliance with Sparta, and joined the Ætolian League. They entered into the fourth Sacred War in conjunction with the Thebans and Athenians, but were defeated at Charonea by Philip II. of Macedon in 338 B.C. After this time little is said of Locris in Grecian history as a separate state, while later on the story of its inhabitants is identical with those of Ætolia and the states of the Ætolian League.

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B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Locri Ozolæ found Locri Epizephyrii in Italy, about .....	B.C. 710	The Locrians defeated in the Fourth Sacred War by Philip II. of Macedon in the battle of Charonea .....	B.C. 338
The Locrians enter the Ætolian league.....	„ 425		

## 5. PHOCIS.

This state was situated between the country of the Locri Ozolæ on the west, and Bœotia on the east and south, and at one time extended eastward to the channel that separates the island of Eubœa from the mainland. The country and people are said to have received their name from Phocus, a son of Ornytion, who settled there. Phocis was famous for containing within its limits Mount Parnassus, the fabled haunt of Apollo and the nine Muses, and Mount Cithæron. Its most noted town was Delphi, at which was a celebrated oracle of Apollo. At first this was only a deep cavern with a narrow entrance, from which issued an exhalation which produced extraordinary effects on the goats which approached it. Induced by curiosity, some people went to examine it, and were seized with a kind of frenzy, leaping as if they were mad, and giving vent to ejaculations and sentences which were soon imagined to be prophetic of coming events. Afterwards a tripod was placed over the aperture, upon which a woman was seated, who answered questions that were proposed to the deity.

The most noteworthy events in the special history of

Phocis are for the most part in immediate connection with the so-called Sacred Wars, which were four in number. Delphi was situated at the foot of Mount Parnassus, and visitors to the shrine who came from any part of Greece by sea usually landed at Cirrha, a seaport town on the north shore of the Gulf of Corinth, which happened to be the nearest port to the oracles. Between Cirrha and Delphi lay the fertile Crissæan plain, which the pilgrims traversed on their way from the former to the latter place. The men of Cirrha were in the habit of extorting heavy dues from travellers on their way to Delphi, and as they would not abandon their exactions at the order of the Amphictyons, these representatives of the Greek states ordered war to be undertaken against them, and the other cities of Phocis were obliged to take part in the siege of Cirrha. The siege lasted from 595 B.C. to 585 B.C., when the city was taken and completely destroyed. The plain of Crissæa, moreover, was declared by the Amphictyons to be attached to Delphi and devoted to Apollo, and no man was permitted to cultivate it. Such was the First Sacred War; it should be said, however, that some writers call this the Cirrhaean War, and speak of the second, third, and fourth wars as the first, second, and third. Others again leave out the second, and speak of the first, third, and fourth as the first, second, and third. It will be better to explain this by a table, as follows:—

				B.C.	B.C.
FIRST Sacred War ...	Cirrhaean War ...	First Sacred War	595 to 585		
SECOND „ „ ...	First Sacred War	.....	448 „ 447		
THIRD „ „ ...	Second „ „	Second „ „	357 „ 346		
FOURTH „ „ ...	Third „ „	Third „ „	339 „ 338		

It should be mentioned that the third in point of order, reckoning four Sacred Wars, is sometimes called the Phocian War.

The Second Sacred War was occasioned by an attempt of the Spartans to reinstate in possession of Delphi the people of that city who had been dispossessed by the Phocians; but no sooner had they been reinstated than the Athenians, sending troops to the assistance of the Phocians, again restored the temple of Apollo to their keeping. After some years, however, it was again given back to the Delphians.

Before the battle of Leuctra, which happened in 371 B.C.,

the Phocians had been in alliance with Sparta ; but after the defeat of Sparta by the Thebans in this battle, they had become allies of the latter. They did not long keep the treaty into which they had then entered, and the Thebans in revenge accused the Phocians before the Amphictyonic council of having cultivated a portion of the Crissæan plain. The Amphictyons immediately decreed that the part that had been ploughed and sown should be laid waste, and that the Phocian nation should pay a heavy fine 357  
for the offence of which they had been guilty. B.C.

The Phocians, stirred to resistance by the eloquence of Philomelus, determined to resist, and having seized the treasures laid up at Delphi, they hired mercenaries and prepared for war. A war in which no quarter was given on either side was carried on for four years between the Phocians on one hand, and the Thebans and Locrians on the other, at the end of which time Philomelus fell, and the chief command was transferred to his brother, Onomarchus, who induced the Thessalians to espouse the cause of the Phocians. Philip of Macedon, on the pretext of supporting the common religion of the country against a people who were deemed guilty of sacrilege, had sent troops to the assistance of the Thebans and Locrians, and at a battle fought near Magnesia in 352 B.C., Onomarchus shared the fate of his brother, and the Phocians were totally defeated. A third brother, Phayllus, now assumed the command of the Phocian troops, and the contest was continued as fiercely as ever. At last the treasures taken from Apollo's temple at Delphi were exhausted, and no money being forthcoming, the mercenaries began to fall away, and disputes and disagreements to arise among the Phocians. Philip of Macedon was on his march southward at the head of a numerous and well-appointed army, and the Phocians, having no means of continuing the war, threw themselves on his mercy, and besought him to plead their cause before the council of the Amphictyons. The members, however, refused to listen to him, and it was decreed that the Phocians should be expelled from the council, and be no longer allowed to send representatives thither. Their arms and their 346  
horses were to be sold for the benefit of Apollo's B.C. temple, and a large sum was to be levied annually throughout Phocis till it was restored to its former condition and opu-

lence. It was further ordered that the fortifications of their cities should be razed, and the towns reduced to mere villages. The Macedonians were ordered to put the decree in force, and it was carried out to the very letter. Ultimately, however, the Phocians regained their influence, chiefly through the protection of the Athenians, and the favour with which Philip regarded them, after having brought them to the verge of national ruin. Of the Fourth Sacred War we need say nothing here.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

First Sacred War : Com- mencement of siege of Cirrha .....	B.C. 595	Third Sacred War com- menced by the Pho- cians : Sack of Del- phi .....	B.C. 357
Fall of Cirrha, and con- clusion of the First Sacred War .....	„ 585	Total defeat of the Pho- cians near Magnesia by the Macedonians, &c. ....	„ 352
Second Sacred War : Ex- pulsion of Delphians from Delphi .....	„ 448	End of the Third Sacred War : The Phocians are expelled from the Amphictyonic Coun- cil .....	„ 346
The Thebans accuse the Phocians of sacrilege before the Amphic- tyonic Council .....	„ 357		

#### 6. BŒOTIA AND THEBES.

The kingdom of Bœotia was bounded on the east by Attica ; on the north by the strait of Euripus, now called the Negropont ; on the west by the kingdom of Phocis ; and on the south by Corinth. The air of this country was thick and foggy, and supposed to have an influence on the inhabitants, who were not remarkable for vivacity. In Bœotia was the cave of Trophonius, which, whoever entered, was never seen to laugh afterwards. Here, also, was the celebrated pass of Thermopylæ, which was so denominated from the hot springs in that neighbourhood. Bœotia has been successively called Aonia, Mesapia, Hyantis, Ogygia, and Cadmeis. The name by which it was subsequently known was doubtless derived, as it has been said, from a Thessalian tribe that migrated southwards and settled there, although it is alleged that it obtained its name from Bœotis, the son of Itonus ; or, according to others, from a cow, *bous* in Greek, by which Cadmus was directed to the spot on which he built the city of Thebes.

Cadmus founded the kingdom of Thebes, in which the monarchical form of government was more despotic than in any other of the Grecian states. This 1493 prince, as it has been explained in the summary of B.C. the principal legends and traditions of Greece, was of Phœnician extraction, and introduced into Greece the knowledge of alphabetic writing. He is also said to have taught the people navigation and commerce, the method of cultivating the vine, and the art of forging and working metals.

Another story connected with Thebes, which was not included among the Greek legends, but which may be related here, as it led up to a war which has been previously mentioned—the war of the Seven Captains against Thebes—is the tradition of the family of Laius. This king was the son of Labdacus, who ascended the throne of Thebes (1430 B.C.). He succeeded his father in due course, but was dethroned by Amphion and Zethus. He was, however, restored, and married Jocasta, the daughter of Creon, who ascended the throne after the death of Laius. An oracle having predicted that the son of Laius and Jocasta, his consort, should kill his father, the Theban king, to preserve his own life, caused his son, who was called Œdipus, to be exposed. Œdipus was brought up by some shepherds who found him, and, after arriving at maturity, accidentally killed his father, whom he did not know. (1276 B.C.). He married his mother Jocasta, and obtained the kingdom from Creon by expounding the riddle of the Sphinx\*—a fabulous monster that was said at that time to ravage Thebes and the surrounding country. When Œdipus discovered the secret of his birth, he tore out his eyes, and Jocasta killed herself. The sons of Œdipus and Jocasta, Eteocles and Polynices by name, agreed to reign alternately year by year; but at the expiration of the first year Eteocles refused to resign the throne, and Polynices having gained the assistance of Adrastus, king of Argos, and other Greek chiefs, marched against Thebes. As there were seven leaders of this expedition, including Adrastus and Polynices, it has been called the War of the Seven Captains. The war was decided by a duel between the brothers, in which both fell (1225 B.C.). The troops under Adrastus and the other chiefs were then

\* The enigma was—"What animal walks on four legs in the morning, on two during the day, and on three in the evening?" The answer of Œdipus was—"Man."

withdrawn, but Thebes was again besieged by Adrastus, twelve years after, and taken (1213 B.C.).

At length the Thebans, weary of a regal government, converted the kingdom into a republic, after royalty had been established rather more than three hundred and fifty years. At the head of the republic, which consisted of a confederacy of fourteen cities, of which Thebes was considered the chief, they placed a chief magistrate, who incurred the penalty of death if he did not resign his office at the expiration of the year. A council of magistrates, called *Boeotarchs*, who were elected, two by Thebes and one by each of the other cities of the confederacy, served as a check on the authority of the chief magistrate. These members held the first post in the army; and magistrates, named *polemarchs*, administered justice. In the Theban republic were four councils, each of which was composed of deputies from different districts, who, when assembled, decided in the last instance on all public affairs. At Thebes, the capital of *Boeotia*, merchants and artificers were admitted into the number of citizens, though they were excluded from all public employments. Although royalty had been abolished in Thebes, the government of this and most of the other cities was retained in the hands of a few, or, in other words, were oligarchies. The contests that arose between Thebes and *Plataea*, another *Boeotian* city, were occasioned by the democratic spirit which prevailed in the latter, and which led its citizens to oppose the aristocratic tendencies of Thebes and her sister states.

The *Boeotians* being surrounded by republics more powerful than themselves, their plains frequently served as a field of battle for their enemies and allies. Sometimes, also, they took their share in war; and their soldiers, more firm than impetuous, were much esteemed.

In 608 B.C. *Boeotia* was the scene of a conflict between the people of *Mitylene* and the Athenians, and being, as it were, a connecting link between the Greek states to the north and south of it, through which one party must pass to meet the other, or an invading enemy from the north must pass in making its way southward, it became the scene of many of the most important battles fought on Greek soil during the existence of Greece as a free nation. In 519 B.C. *Plataea* withdrew from the Theban League and joined the Athenians, but the other cities of the confederacy, and the most of *Chalcis*

in Eubœa, took part with the Peloponnesians against the Athenians. In the war that ensued between Thebes and Athens, the Athenians were the conquerors, and this so irritated their enemies that when the Persians threatened all Greece with subjection, and every Greek was arming in defence of his country, the Thebans joined the Persians and shared in the total defeat that overtook the Eastern levies in 479 B.C. In revenge for their want of patriotism, the Athenians entered Bœotia some years later, and altered the form of government in Thebes from an oligarchy to a democracy, after defeating the Bœotians in the battle of Cœnophyta. The Bœotians, however, recovered themselves, and the Theban leaders who had been sent into exile by the Athenians, having returned, the Athenians were defeated in the battle of Coronea, and the old form of government restored. During the Peloponnesian war between Athens and Sparta (B.C. 431—404) the Bœotians took part with the Spartans, but they changed sides in the ensuing Corinthian war, which broke out in 395 B.C., and sided with the Athenians. Agesilaus, king of Sparta, led an army into Bœotia and defeated the Bœotians at Coronea, in the following year. The war was brought to a close by the peace of Antalcidas in 387 B.C., and Thebes lost for a time her supremacy over the Bœotian cities. Bœotia was again invaded by Agesilaus and Cleombrotus in 378 B.C., but the Bœotians retorted by enrolling a body of men, to which the name of the Sacred Band was given, under Epaminondas and Pelopidas, and entering into alliance with Athens against Sparta. Epaminondas was one of the greatest heroes Ancient Greece ever produced, and he restored his state to independence and Thebes to her former ascendancy within its limits, by defeating the Spartans in the battle of Leuctra. In the third Sacred War, the Thebans, as it has been related in the account of Phocis, fought with the Macedonians against the Phocians, Athenians, and Spartans, with marked success, but a few years later the Thebans joined the Athenians in endeavouring to check the arrogance of Philip of Macedon, who sought to render himself master of Greece, and were defeated by him at Chæronea. Thebes was subsequently taken and destroyed by Alexander the Great in 335 B.C., after which time the Bœotian League took no prominent part in the

480  
B.C.456  
B.C.447  
B.C.371  
B.C.338  
B.C.

affairs of Greece, while Thebes itself sank into utter insignificance, never recovering its once dominant position in Bœotia.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Cadmus, the Phœnician, is said to have settled in Bœotia.....	B.C. 1493	The Thebans side with the Persians against the Greeks .....	B.C. 480
Labdacus reigns in Thebes, about.....	„ 1430	Crushing defeat of the Persians under Mar- donius before Plataea ..	„ 479
Thebes besieged and Laius dethroned by Amphion and Zethus ..	„ 1388	Thebes taken by the Athenians: Change in form of govern- ment .....	„ 456
Laius killed by his son, Œdipus, to whom his father is unknown ...	„ 1276	Athenians defeated by the Thebans in the battle of Coronea ...	„ 447
Œdipus unravels the riddle of the Sphinx, and gains the crown of Thebes.....	„ 1266	Bœotia sides with Spar- ta during the Pelopo- nesian war,	
The expedition of the Seven Captains against the city of Thebes. Death of Ete- ocles and Polynices ..	„ 1225	B.C. 431 to „ 404	
Thebes betrayed and taken by Adrastus, king of Argos .....	„ 1213	Corinthian war—The- bans defeated by Agesilaus at Coronea ..	„ 394
The Bœotii and Æolian people dispossessed by the Thessalians, enter Bœotia and take possession of it. Roy- alty said to have been abolished in Thebes about this time .....	„ 1124	Peace of Antalcidas. Theban supremacy destroyed.....	„ 357
Withdrawal of the city of Plataea from the Bœotian League .....	„ 519	Invasion of Bœotia by Agesilaus and Cleom- brotus .....	„ 378
Cities of Bœotian League join the Spar- tans against the Athe- nians.....	„ 507	Spartans defeated by Epaminondas in the battle of Leuctra. Theban independence and supremacy re- stored .....	„ 371
		Thebans defeated by Philip II. of Macedon at Chæronea .....	„ 338
		Thebes taken and com- pletely destroyed by Alexander the Great ..	„ 335

#### 7. MEGARIS.

Of this little state, which was situated to the south of Bœotia, and had Attica on the east, the Saronic Gulf and Corinth on the south, and that part of the Gulf of Corinth which was called the Alcïonian Sea, on its northern and western seaboard, there is not much to say. Its chief city was Megara, on the Saronic Gulf. It is said to have been



founded about 1131 B.C., but a far earlier date is assigned for the building of the city by those who say it was founded by Car, a son of Phoroneus, who reigned at Argos about 1775 B.C., or Pandion II., son of Cecrops II., king of Athens, who succeeded his father on the throne about 1300 B.C., but, being driven from his dominions, took refuge with Pylas, king of Megaris, and married his daughter. The old Greeks chose to think that it was called Megara, after Megarius, a son of Neptune or Apollo, who was buried there. When the Dorians, under the descendants of Hercules, conquered Corinth, they took possession of Megaris also, and, under their management, Megara subsequently became one of the most flourishing cities of Greece. The Megarians were an enterprising race, and are credited with having founded a colony, called after their chief town in Sicily, about 728 B.C., and Byzantium in 657 B.C. In 630 B.C. Theagenes endeavoured to establish kingly, or rather absolute power in Megara, but he was compelled to quit the state thirty years after. A revolution then ensued, in which the people, oppressed with debt, rose against the wealthy classes, aided by some few among the rich aristocracy, who took this means of gratifying personal ambition. Eventually, however, the owners of property got the better of the lower classes, whose condition, nevertheless, was ameliorated by the struggle. Later the Megarians entered into a close alliance with the Athenians, and the latter seem to have acquired considerable power in the state, for Pericles suppressed a revolt there ten years later. After the battle of Chæronea, Philip II. of Macedon established his supremacy over Megara, but in 307 B.C. its freedom was once more achieved by Demetrius Poliorcetes, and about 243 B.C. Megaris joined the Achæan League.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Foundation of Megara variously stated at 1775 B.C., 1300 B.C., or	B.C. 1131	Colony of Byzantium (afterwards Constantinople) said to have been established by Megarians	B.C. 657
The Heraclids acquired supremacy in Megaris	„ 1074	Theagenes seizes supreme power in Megara	„ 630
Colony of Megara founded near Hybla, in Sicily, by Megarians	„ 728		

Expulsion of Theagenes. A long social struggle commences	B.C.	600	Surrender of Megara to Philip II. of Macedon .....	B.C.	338
Alliance of Megara and Athens .....	,,	455	Freedom of Megara secured by Demetrius Poliorcetes .....	,,	307
Revolt in Megara subdued by the Athenian Pericles .....	,,	445	Megaris enters the Achæan League .....	,,	243

### 8. ATTICA AND ATHENS—EARLY HISTORY.

Authentic and reliable chronology in Grecian history commences at the establishment of the first Olympiad, in 776 B.C. The epoch, however, at which Grecian history begins to present more than usual interest to the reader is about 508 B.C., when the struggle for supremacy was commencing between Athens and Sparta, and soon after which the contest commenced between Greece and Persia, which ended in the subjugation and subversion of the Persian empire by Alexander the Great. Up to the close of the sixth century B.C., the states of Greece had preserved greater individuality and freedom of action than they exhibited after this time, when the manifest superiority of the rival states of Athens and Sparta compelled them to follow in the wake of one or the other, as might best suit their separate interests. Wars and contentions had been frequent among them, but no war had taken place of an internecine character so important as those which subsequently ensued between Athens and Sparta and the states in alliance with each. They had had an intercourse with foreign countries, marked chiefly by the immigration of foreigners into Greece in the early ages, and afterwards by the establishment of Greek colonies in Asia Minor and various parts of the Mediterranean seaboard, by emigrants from many of the Greek states; but Greece had not yet intermingled in the affairs of the world at large, as far as it was then known, in the form of a great national power. The Persian war, which did so much to evoke the spirit of Greek nationality, was at this time fast approaching, and the hour was at hand when Greece as a nation was to be called on to form a barrier to the progress of Persia westward. For this and other reasons that have been stated, it has been thought best to bring the separate history of Athens and Sparta down to the close of the sixth century B.C., and then follow up the thread of the

history of Greece, as a whole, until its final absorption into the Roman empire.

Attica was bounded on the west by Megara, on the north by Mount Cithæron and Bœotia; on the east by the channel of the Euripus, now called the Negropont, where it opens out to the southward into the Myrtoan Sea; and on the south-west by the Saronic Gulf. It was about sixty miles from north-west to south-east, and about fifty six from north to south. The soil was naturally barren, and rendered fertile chiefly by the indefatigable industry of the people. The Athenians were early distinguished for good faith in commerce, which was the source of their riches, and by it they acquired the means of raising great armies.

This kingdom is generally allowed to have been founded by Cecrops, an Egyptian, who brought hither a colony from Sais in the north of Egypt. He is said to have built the city of Athens, introduced the worship of Jupiter and Minerva, instituted marriage, which he rendered a sacred union, and forbade to sacrifice to the gods any living animal. He is also supposed to have been the founder of the Areopagus, or tribunal of Mars' Hill, a court of justice, on the plan of the Egyptian tribunals; but by some writers this institution is ascribed to Cranaus, and by others to Solon, which is most probable. Amphictyon, who succeeded Cranaus, was the third king of Athens, and he was succeeded by fourteen kings in succession, of whom the most notable are the Greek hero Theseus, and Codrus, who closed the long line of Athenian monarchs.\* Theseus, the son of Ægeus, was a favourite hero of the Athenians, and many marvellous acts and deeds are ascribed to him by the old writers. As a king, he appears to have been fond of liberal institutions, and brought about a more perfect equality of classes, in which the state resembled a republic, rather than

\* The seventeen kings of Athens, as given by the old writers, are as follows:—

Cecrops I. ....	B.C. 1556	Theseus .....	B.C. 1235
Cranaus .....	„ 1506	Menestheus.....	„ 1205
Amphictyon .....	„ 1497	Demophoon.....	„ 1182
Erichthonius .....	„ 1487	Axyntes .....	„ 1149
Pandion I. ....	„ 1437	Aphidas .....	„ 1137
Erechtheus .....	„ 1397	Thymætes .....	„ 1136
Cecrops II. ....	„ 1347	Melanthus .....	„ 1128
Pandion II. ....	„ 1307	Codrus .....	„ 1091
Ægeus .....	„ 1283	Death of Codrus.....	„ 1070

a monarchy. Notwithstanding his many public and private virtues, this prince fell a sacrifice to the inconstancy of the people. He had been absent from his dominions for some time, on some expedition or other, and had probably been compelled to endure a long captivity. Mythologists say that he was detained in the realms of Pluto, for trying, in conjunction with his friend Pirithous, to carry off Proserpine. While he was away Menestheus managed to ingratiate himself with the people, and was raised by them to the throne. Theseus, on his return, tried to reinstate himself, but to no purpose, and retired to the isle of Scyros, where he died. The children of Theseus recovered the crown of Athens on the death of Menestheus.

The last king of Athens was Codrus, in whose reign the Dorians and Heraclidæ took possession of the greater part of the Peloponnesus, and, after taking Corinth and Megaris, encroached on the Attic territory. The Delphic oracle declared that the Heraclidæ should finally prevail, if they abstained from injuring the person of the king of Athens. Codrus being informed of this, disguised himself in the habit of a peasant, and proceeding to the camp of the enemy was slain by one of the soldiers in combat. The next day the Athenians demanded their king, and the Heraclidæ, despairing of success, abstained from all further hostilities. The merit of Codrus rendered him so much the object of veneration, that the Athenians considered no man worthy of succeeding him, and therefore decreed that no man should henceforth bear the title of king in Athens.

The Athenians, however, chose from the family of Codrus their first magistrate, in the person of his son Medon. To him and his successors, as chief of the state, they gave the title of *archon*, or "ruler." At first the archon held his office for life; but its duration for the same person was subsequently fixed on the death of Alcmaeon, in 752 B.C., at ten years.\*

\* The perpetual and decennial archons of Athens were as follows :

#### PERPETUAL ARCHONS.

Medon .....	B.C. 1070	Pherecles .....	B.C. 865
Acastus .....	" 1050	Ariphron .....	" 846
Archippus .....	" 1014	Thespius .....	" 826
Thesippus .....	" 995	Agameston .....	" 799
Phorbas .....	" 954	Æschylus .....	" 778
Megacles .....	" 923	Alcmaeon .....	" 756
Diognetus .....	" 893		

This new decennial dignity had been for some time enjoyed, and had been confined to the family of Codrus up to 714 B.C., when the people, rising in a tumult, deposed Eryxias, the archon then in power, and rendered the office annual; and instead of one, they chose nine archons, who were selected from among the Athenian nobles. Of these nine archons, three had separate and special functions, while the rest acted as judges in the administration of the laws, and for this reason were called *thesmothetæ*. The chief archon was called *Archon Eponymus*, because he gave his name to the year during which he held office, the Athenians being then accustomed to reckon time by the names of the archons, speaking of events as "occurring in the year when such a one was archon." The next in rank was called *Archon Basileus*, or the "royal archon," because it was his duty to preside at all sacred and secular festivals and ceremonies, and trials for murder. The third was called the *Polemarch*, or "archon for war," and combined the functions of commander-in-chief of the troops, and judge in matters of dispute between Athens and the other states of Greece.

This system of government was oligarchical, that is to say the supreme power had passed from the hands of an absolute king or supreme archon to those of a few of the most wealthy and influential among the Athenian citizens, who could use their wealth and influence to secure election. The council which had assisted the king as a deliberative body, was called the senate, under the annual archons. All the Athenian nobility belonged to the senate, or rather could claim a seat in the senate as soon as they had served as archons. The Athenian people were divided into four tribes, each tribe into three bodies, called *Phratriæ*; each *phratia* into thirty *Gentes*, and each *gens* into thirty Families. Some resemblance will be found to this in the classification of the citizens of Rome.

The lack of a written and well-digested body of laws, which might mitigate the evils arising from the arbitrary and wanton power frequently exercised by the archons, was much felt in

## DECENNIAL ARCHONS.

Charops .....	B.C. 753	Leocrates .....	B.C. 714
Æsimeles .....	" 744	Apsander .....	" 704
Clidicus .....	" 734	Eryxias .....	" 694
Hippomenes .....	" 724		

the state, and frequent misunderstandings arose between the governors and the governed, which gave rise to tumults and seditions. Draco, therefore, who was an archon, and of illustrious birth, projected a reform in the constitution of his country, and thought to repress disorders by the severity of penal laws. Every crime, from the most enormous to the most trifling, was considered as equally heinous, and therefore punished with death. The severity of such a system defeated its own purposes. Aristotle informs us, that Herodicus used to say, "that his institutions seemed to have proceeded from a dragon, rather than from a man;" and Demades rendered himself famous by observing, "That the laws of Draco were not written with ink, but with blood."

624

B.C.

The savage and blood-thirsty enactments of Draco, indeed, proved as distasteful to the Athenians as the decisions of the archons, given according to their own judgment, and without the sanction of written law, and at last Cylon, who had married the daughter of Theagenes, at that time supreme in Megara, endeavoured to excite an insurrection, and seized the Acropolis, or citadel of Athens. The people did not respond to his summons, and Cylon and his supporters sought sanctuary in the temple of Minerva. Megacles, one of the archons, and a member of the wealthy family of the Alcmaeonidæ, who rebuilt the temple of Delphi when it was burnt down in 548 B.C., induced them to give themselves up, and then ordered them to be executed. This was looked on as a violation of Minerva's sanctuary and an act of sacrilege; and the whole family of the Alcmaeonidæ were considered to be under a ban in consequence of it, and were sent into exile fifteen years later.

612

B.C.

At length appeared Solon, the wise, the great, the good, who, being appointed to the archonship, obtained full power to reform the laws and constitution of the state. His first act was to cancel the laws of Draco, those only excepted which related to murder. He next abolished the debts of the poor by a law of insolvency; and, for this purpose, he lowered the interest and raised the value of money. Some of his intimate friends, betraying the trust reposed in them by Solon, borrowed large sums of money, with which they purchased estates before the edict was published; but the people soon removed all their suspi-

594

B.C.

cions of connivance when they found that Solon was a loser by the law which he had passed.

He next proceeded to regulate the offices, employments, and magistrates of the state, all of which he committed to the care of the rich; but while he entrusted the execution of the government to the nobles, he lodged the supreme power in the hands of the people. For this purpose he distributed the Athenians into four classes; the first three were composed of persons possessing an annual income above 200 medimni in amount. The members of the first class were called *Pentacosii medimni*, because the income of those who were eligible for it was fixed at a minimum of 500 medimni.\* Members of this class were eligible as archons and for the higher offices of state. The second class were called *Knights*, or *Horsemen*. They filled inferior offices in the state, were engaged in trade and commerce, and were bound to serve in the cavalry at their own expense. The *Zeugitæ*, or *yokemen*, who formed the third class, and were so called because they kept, or could keep a yoke of oxen, were farmers engaged in agriculture, and were bound to serve in the infantry. The fourth class, called *Thetæ*, comprised all whose incomes fell below 200 medimni. They served as light-armed troops; but while the other classes had to pay an annual property tax, they were exempt from it. To these no office nor employment in the state was assigned; but they had the power of voting in the general assembly of the people. He conferred greater power on the old Senate, to which he gave the name of the court of Areopagus. The members of this court were appointed at first to watch over the constitution; but subsequently it was deprived of its legislative functions, and sat only to decide on matters and questions of religion. He also formed a new senate, which was composed of four hundred persons, who had the preparation and examination of all causes before they could be proposed to the general assembly of the people.

Solon enacted that those who, in an insurrection or a schism of the people, observed a blamable and dangerous

\* A medimnus was a measure equivalent to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  bushel, and was worth an Attic drachma, a coin about equal to 10d. in our money. An Athenian of the first class, therefore, was worth on the average about £25 sterling per annum—not a large sum, it is true, but money went a long way in those days.

neutrality, should be condemned to perpetual banishment, and all their property be confiscated. He abolished the custom of giving portions in marriage with young women, unless they were only daughters ; and the bride was to carry with her no more than three suits of clothes, and some household goods of trifling value. This law was intended to promote a union of congenial minds and mutual affections.

After promulgating his laws, Solon determined to travel ; and having bound the Athenians to an oath that his institutions should not be changed in any part for the space of ten years, he set out on his journey about 572 B.C. It must now be noticed that, prior to the classification of the people by Solon, the inhabitants of Attica had been divided into men of the highlands, men of the lowlands, and men of the coast. The first were the poorer proprietors of the land—poorer, because the hilly districts of Attica were less productive than the plains or lowlands, whose owners had amassed wealth, and had won their way to the position of nobles. The men of the coast were those who dwelt near the sea-shore, and were mostly engaged in trade and commerce. There is always an antagonism between rich and poor, and the poor men of the hills had always felt a jealousy, both of the wealthy proprietors of the plains and the traders of the coast, whose money helped them to gain good positions in the state. Solon had done his best to equalise the burdens of all classes, and to give every man a fair chance of getting on ; but during his absence his cousin, Pisistratus, to further his own ends and satisfy his personal ambition, roused anew the old jealousy of the hill-men against the other classes, and offered himself to them as their leader and supporter in endeavouring to bring about a state of affairs which might improve their power and position.

Pisistratus was on the point of accomplishing his design when Solon, after an absence of ten years, returned to Athens, to find, to his grief and surprise, the country on the eve of a revolution. The legislator, now advanced in age, was not  
 562 able to quell the factions, and direct the helm of  
 B.C. government in the storm. Pisistratus having  
 purposely wounded himself, drove his chariot into  
 the market-place as if pursued by his enemies ; and exhibiting his bleeding body to the populace, he requested their protection. A general assembly being convened on the



motion of Ariston, Pisistratus obtained a guard of fifty men, and seizing the citadel, assumed the sovereignty of Athens. He did not, however, make any changes in the Athenian constitution. On the contrary, he endeavoured to provide for the better execution of the laws. Not only the assembly, council, magistracies, and courts of justice remained with their full constitutional powers; but Pisistratus is said to have obeyed a citation from the Areopagus on a charge of murder, but his accuser did not appear to make good his allegations.

560  
B.C.

Solon died at Cyprus in the eightieth year of his age, and two years after the assumption of the regal power by Pisistratus. After his death the Athenians paid him the highest honours, and erected in the forum at Athens and at Salamis (of which he was a native) statues of him in brass, with his hand in his gown, the posture in which he was accustomed to harangue the people. Besides his knowledge of legislation, he was a very eloquent speaker, and excelled in poetry.

558  
B.C.

Pisistratus was obliged twice to leave the city and abandon the sovereign power; but he had the address to reinstate himself in his authority. He was first compelled to leave Athens by the joint action of the factions of the Plains and the Coast, who were led, the former by Lycurgus, and the latter by Megacles. Pisistratus then formed an alliance with Megacles, and married his daughter, and by Megacles' aid once more regained supremacy in Athens. Having quarrelled with Megacles, the leader of the Coast party renewed his alliance with Lycurgus, and Pisistratus was again obliged to leave Athens. He remained in exile in the island of Eubœa for ten years, at the end of which he landed at the head of a large body of troops in Attica, and having taken his enemies by surprise, made himself supreme for the third time. He then rendered himself secure for the future by surrounding himself with a guard of mercenaries. Pisistratus was eminent for his love of learning and of the fine arts, and was the first that built a library for public inspection. He collected and digested the poems of Homer into the order in which we possess them at present. Cicero speaks of him as the first model of that eloquence in which Greece so eminently excelled. He continued to direct the government of Athens with wisdom and ability, and died at an *advanced age*.

The period during which these events happened was that in which a certain class of ambitious men sought to grasp supreme power in almost every state of Greece. It lasted from about 650 B.C. to 500 B.C., and it was the reaction against the state of things that had been brought about by these men which brought on the Persian war, as it will be seen. The general constitution of every part of the country had undergone a considerable change. The little communities under kings that previously existed throughout Greece had become welded together into states, whose separate history, as far as it is necessary to relate it, is now being given. The principle "that union gives strength," as far as the state was concerned, had been fully acknowledged, and the cities of each state, speaking generally, had entered into a federal bond of union, at the head of which was the most powerful town of the state, which became the seat of the federal government. The old *basilei*, or kings, had disappeared, and the power had passed, first into the hands of the leading men in each state, which had previously composed the royal council, and then to the leading men or nobles of the first city of the state. This form of government is called an oligarchy, under which the few or smaller number exercise authority over the many or greater number, the disparity in point of numerical value being very great. From the few who had thus obtained sovereign power in the state, its chief magistrate and principal executive officers were chosen at fixed periods of greater or less duration. Ultimately, in many of the Greek states, one of the number into whose hands supreme power had passed, sought to render himself superior to his colleagues, and in many instances succeeded, as Pisistratus did in Athens and Theagenes in Megara. These men deprived their former associates in power of any share in the government, and were called *Turannoi*, or tyrants, not because they were cruel and despotic at first, but because they were determined to have their own way, and took all necessary steps to secure it; in due time the unbridled exercise of power engendered cruelty and harsh dealing towards their fellow-countrymen in these tyrants, and the term, which in its primary sense was only used to designate a man who had assumed and maintained absolute power in a state, came in later ages to be applied to anyone who acts in a harsh and arbitrary manner, whether in any office, high or low, or in the common relations of social life.

In noticing the times of Solon and Pisistratus, it must not be omitted to mention that it was in their day that the dramatic performances, for which the Greeks afterwards became so famous, took the first steps towards the elaborate form which they afterwards assumed. During the time that elapsed between the return of Solon from the East and the seizure of the government by Pisistratus, comedy is said to have been introduced at Athens by Susarion and Dolon, Greek poets of Megara. Probably the comedy of these poets was nothing more than a rough and humorous song sung by two performers in turn, as the first mention of the appearance of an actor on the stage is when Thespis introduced a single performer in addition to the chorus of men disguised as satyrs, and having their faces smeared with wine-lees, who sung songs in honour of Bacchus at the Greek festivals, and which assumed a tragic cast from embodying a narration of the trials and sufferings which Bacchus was supposed to have undergone. Æschylus, who was born ten years later (525 B.C.), added more actors to the single one of Thespis, and thus improved the scenic representation of the Greeks by the introduction of dialogue.

On the death of the tyrant Pisistratus, Hippias and Hipparchus, his sons, succeeded to the government. They greatly favoured learning and learned men, and invited to Athens Anacreon of Teos, and Simonides of Cos. A conspiracy was formed against the two brothers; but Hipparchus only was killed. The cause of the conspiracy was this. Hipparchus was partial to the society of a young man named Harmodius, who was the intimate friend of an Athenian citizen, Aristogiton, and did not care to surrender his previous intimacy for a closer acquaintance with Hipparchus, although it might have tended more to his advancement than the other. Hipparchus, annoyed by the conduct of Harmodius, prevented his sister from taking part in the procession in honour of Minerva at the Panathenæa. It was in consequence of this that Harmodius and Aristogiton determined on killing the brothers, and succeeded in murdering Hipparchus, just before the procession was about to commence, with daggers that they had concealed in the boughs of myrtle that they were about to carry in it. The mercenaries with whom Hipparchus was surrounded cut down Harmodius, but Aristogiton was taken prisoner. Hippias, whose disposition had

hitherto been mild and amiable, now became ferocious and cruel, and caused Aristogiton to be put to the torture. This man, when questioned with respect to his accomplices, mentioned some of Hippias's best friends, who were immediately put to death. He then named others, who shared the same fate; and when asked by Hippias if there were not still more, he replied, smiling, "I know of none now but yourself who deserve to suffer death."

Crime invariably begets crime; and the murder of Hipparchus induced in the survivor those sins against the freedom of the Athenians of which Hippias was afterwards guilty. The deed of Harmodius and Aristogiton developed a brutal exercise of arbitrary power in Hippias, and his subsequent cruelty caused them to regard the murderers as heroes, and their crime as praiseworthy, as it was merely the murder of an oppressor of their fellow-men, or one who—to judge from the conduct of Hippias—would have oppressed the Athenians as cruelly as his brother, if he had lived. The discontent of the people was further excited by the Alcmaeonidæ, who, as it has been said, had rebuilt the temple of Delphi in 548 a.c., which, according to general belief, had been set on fire by order of Pisistratus. This act of the banished Alcmaeonidæ purged the family of the sacrilege of which the offence of Megacles had rendered them guilty, and they sought to return to their native city. Hippias refused to cancel the act of banishment, and the Spartans took up the cause of the Alcmaeonidæ—partly on account of the religious service they had rendered to Greece by rebuilding Apollo's temple, and partly because the Delphic oracle had declared that the liberty of

510

B.C.

the Athenians must be restored. Accordingly the troops of Sparta marched on Athens under the Spartan king, Cleomenes, the mercenaries of Hippias were defeated in a collision with the invaders without the walls, and Hippias himself escaped in haste to Sigæum, in Asia Minor, whence he ultimately made his way eastward to the Persian king, Darius.

With the flight of the tyrant Hippias from his native country, to which the unfortunate man was fated never to return, it will be convenient to bring to a close the early history of Athens, for from this date the respective stories of Athens and Sparta become virtually the history of Greece, and form closely-twined strands of a single cord, which it is difficult to separate.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Cecrops of Sais establishes himself in Attica .....	B.C. 1556	East. Confusion at Athens caused by Pisistratus .....	B.C. 584
Theseus said to have incorporated the villages established by Cecrops, about the site of Athens, into a single city so called ..	1234	Comedy said to have been introduced at Athens by Susarion and Dolon .....	578
Death of Codrus, the last of the Athenian kings .....	1070	Usurpation of the government by Pisistratus, the tyrant ...	560
Medon, the son of Codrus, becomes ruler of Athens, as perpetual Archon ..	1070	Death of Solon at Cyprus .....	558
Death of Alcmaeon, the last of the perpetual archons. The archons' term of office is now limited to ten years .....	753	First expulsion of Pisistratus by Megacles and Lycurgus .....	554
Death of Oryxias, the last of the decennial archons. The archons' term of office limited to one year, and nine archons appointed annually ...	684	Re-establishment of the government of Pisistratus by Megacles, about .....	550
Draco compiles his severe code of laws ...	621	Second expulsion of the tyrant Pisistratus by Megacles and Lycurgus .....	547
Insurrection of Cylon, who seeks to render himself supreme in Athens .....	612	Return of Pisistratus from Euboea, and his restoration to power ..	537
Alteration of the Constitution of Athens by Solon, and repeal of Draco's laws .....	594	Tragedies first played on a waggon by Thespis, at Athens .....	535
Return of Solon from his travels in the ..		Death of Pisistratus, and accession of his sons Hippias and Hipparchus .....	527
		Murder of Hipparchus by Harmodius and Aristogiton .....	514
		March of the Spartans on Athens to restore freedom, and the defeat and flight of Hippias .....	510

## CHAPTER V.

## THE STATES OF THE PELOPONNESUS.

1556 B.C. to 510 B.C.

The states of the Peloponnesus were Corinth, Sicyon, Achaia, Elis, Messenia, Sparta, Laconia or Lacedemon, and Argolis,

which lay in a circle round the central state, Arcadia ; or we may say that the three northern states were Corinth, Sicyon, and Achaia ; the three central states, Elis, Arcadia, and Argolis ; and the two southern states, Messenia and Sparta, in which order it may be convenient to take them.

### 1. CORINTH.

This little state was contiguous to Megaris at its north-eastern corner, and was washed on the north by the Gulf of Corinth, and on the east by the Saronic Gulf, on the west was Sicyon, and on the south the state of Argolis. At the foot of a mountain called Acrocorinthus, and midway between the northern and eastern seaboard of the state, stood the city of Corinth, and on its summit was built the citadel. The situation of Corinth rendered it the centre of commerce in Greece, and consequently the most wealthy town in the whole country. In Corinth the arts were always carried to the highest degree of perfection, and the most elegant of the five orders of architecture is still distinguished as the Corinthian order. On account of its wealth, greatness, and excellent situation, the Romans thought Corinth equally worthy of empire with Carthage and Capua.

The original foundation of Corinth is attributed to the Phœnicians, who are said to have established a colony called Epyre on its site. Nearly two centuries after, it was seized by Sisyphus, the reputed son of Æolus, the god of the winds, and grandfather of Ulysses, who rebuilt the city, and called it Corinth. Some say that the city was built at a much later date, and named after Corinthus, the son of Pelops. {The foundation of the Isthmian games is attributed to Sisyphus, although Glaucus, his successor, is supposed by many to have instituted them. Corinth was conquered by the Dorians under Aletes, one of the Heraclidæ, who established a Heraclid dynasty in the country. His descendants maintained themselves on the throne for some time, and in 925 B.C. it was occupied by a prince named Bacchis, whose successor and descendants were called Bacchidæ. So numerous did the Bacchidæ become, that, in order to share the sovereign power more completely among themselves, they deposed Telestes, who was king at the time, and constituting themselves into an oligarchy, they

1520

B.C.

1326

B.C.

1074

B.C.

745

B.C.

elected one of their body, Automenes by name, as prytanis, or chief magistrate. The term of office of the prytanes was limited to one year; and the oligarchy of the Bacchidæ under these officers continued in power for nearly two hundred years, when they were expelled. During the time of the Bacchid prytanes, the Corinthians had been extremely prosperous. About 785 B.C. they had invented a large and powerful kind of vessel, called a trireme, from its having three banks, or rows of oars one above another, on either side. Situated midway between the Gulf of Corinth and the Saronic Gulf, Corinth had a port on either side, Cenchreæ on the latter, and Lechæum on the former, and the invention of these swift and roomy galleys gave a great impulse to commerce and colonization. Expeditions were soon sent westward, and Syracuse was founded in Sicily, and the islands of Corcyra, now Corfu, were also settled. The inhabitants of Corcyra soon increased, and the colony thrived and grew in importance so rapidly that colonies were established by the Corcyræans at Ambracia, Anactorium, and Epidamnus, on the mainland of Epirus and the neighbouring island of Lucas, or Leucadia. In due time Corcyra and her colonies thought they were strong enough to assert their independence, and a conflict ensued between the fleets of Corcyra and Corinth, which appears to have resulted in the defeat of the Corinthians, although it does not seem to have secured the independence of the Corcyræans.

655

B.C.

734

B.C.

664

B.C.

It has been said that the Bacchidæ were expelled, and the office of prytanis abolished, about 655 B.C. This was brought about by Cypselus, himself a member of the Bacchid family through his mother, who, on account of being lame, was thrust out of the select circle of the oligarchy of Corinth, and permitted to marry whom she would. She was espoused by a Corinthian citizen, and her son Cypselus, to avenge the slight offered to his mother, roused the people against the ruling family, and soon effected their expulsion. He became the first tyrant, or absolute ruler of Corinth, and ruled the state until 625 B.C., when he was succeeded by his son Periander. This man was possessed of a vigorous intellect, and an iron will. He enforced his authority at home with an undue severity; but he encouraged learning and the arts and sciences, and extended the power of his country abroad, rais-

ing Corinth to the position of the principal commercial and maritime state of Greece. Periander died in 585 B.C., after a prosperous reign of forty years. He does not appear to have been happy in his family relations. He ill-treated his wife, Melissa, and banished his son, Lycophron, to Corcyra, for sympathising with his mother. Lycophron, it is said, was murdered by the Corcyraeans, supposing probably that his presence there menaced a restriction of the independence which they in a measure possessed, and which they were eagerly desirous of extending. Periander was succeeded by

580

B.C.

his nephew, Psammetichus, the son of his brother Gordius; but he was expelled after a reign of about five years by the Spartans, who had already assumed the part of champions of the popular party in the Greek states against the tyrants.

The Corinthians enthusiastically entered into the war with

480

B.C.

Persia; but some years later, when the Greeks had time and opportunity to quarrel once more among themselves, they became involved in a war with the Athenians, in which they were worsted. This was in 457 B.C., and eighteen years after a fresh war broke out with Corcyra about the possession of the town of Epidamnus, in which the Corinthians were again defeated in some well-contested sea-fights. The greatest war in which Corinth was engaged with any of the states of Greece, was the Corinthian War, in which the Corinthians joined the Athenians, Argives, Thessalians, and Thebans against Sparta. This internecine war, the details of which will be given hereafter, was called the Corinthian War, because the first battle that occurred in it was fought under the walls of Corinth, and because the allies met at Corinth to concert measures. It was brought to an end by the peace of Antalcidas, in 387 B.C. In 344 B.C. an attempt to revive despotism in Corinth was made by Timophanes, who fell by the hand of his brother Timoleon. Corinth took an active part in promoting the war which the Greek states proposed to take against Persia, under the leadership of Philip V. of Macedon, and ultimately fell into the power of the Macedonians, from whom it was rescued by Aratus, who took the citadel in 243 B.C. Immediately after this, Corinth joined the Achaean League. In 223 B.C., five years after the ambassadors of Rome had been received in the city, it was delivered up by the Achaeans to



Antigonus Doson. In the final struggle of Greece with Rome, Corinth was besieged and taken by Lucius Mummius, who gave up all the men who survived the siege to be slaughtered by the soldiery, but reserved the women and children for the crueler fate of being sold into slavery. All the beautiful pictures and works of art found in the city were sent off to Rome, after which it was plundered and burnt.

146  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Ephyre said to be founded on the site of Corinth by some Phœnicians .....	B.C. 1520	who assumes absolute power .....	B.C. 655
Foundation of the kingdom of Corinth and establishment of the Isthmian Games by Sisyphus .....	" 1326	Death of Cypselus, and accession of Periander .....	" 625
Conquest of Corinth by the Dorians under the Heraclid prince, Aletes .....	" 1074	Death of Periander and accession of Psammetichus .....	" 585
Bacchis, a descendant of Aletes, succeeds to the throne .....	" 925	Power of Psammetichus brought to a close, and freedom restored to the Corinthians by the Spartans .....	" 580
Invention of triremes by the Corinthians, about .....	" 785	War with the Athenians in which the Corinthians are defeated .....	" 457
Royalty abolished in Corinth by the Bacchids, who establish an oligarchy under prytanes chosen annually .....	" 745	War between Corinth and Corcyra about Epidamnus .....	" 435
Colonies sent from Corinth to Sicily and Corcyra, about .....	" 734	The Corinthian war between Corinth, Athens, etc., and Sparta .....	" 395
Assertion of independence by the Corcyreans, who defeat the Corinthians in a sea-fight .....	" 664	Corinth falls into the power of Philip V. of Macedon .....	" 338
The oligarchy of the Bacchids brought to an end by Cypselus,		Corinth rescued from Macedonian rule by Aratus, after which it joins the Achæan League .....	" 243
		Siege and destruction of the city of Corinth by the Romans under Lucius Mummius .....	" 146

## 2. SICYON.

It has already been stated in the chapter on the legends and traditions of Greece, that Sicyon was considered to be the oldest city in the country. It was founded by **2089** Ægialeus, from whom it was called Ægialeia, and **B.C.** the name Mecone was also applied to it. In 1201 it was conquered by Agamemnon, king of Argos; but when the Peloponnesus fell into the hands of the Dorians, Sicyon became a Dorian state, at about the same time that **1074** Corinth was conquered by Aletes. In 743 B.C., **B.C.** when the first Messenian war broke out, the people of Sicyon joined the Messenians. About 676 B.C., Orthagoras, an Achæan by birth, excited an insurrection, and having expelled the Dorian oligarchy, by which the state was ruled, rendered himself absolute. His successors **560** continued in power for more than a hundred years **B.C.** when, on the death of Clisthenes, the last of his line, a democracy was established. Sicyon sent a large contingent to the national troops of Greece assembled to resist the Persians. It suffered subsequently in the struggle that took place between Athens and Sparta; but was strong enough to resist, with success a fleet sent against it under Tolmides, the Athenian admiral, in 456 B.C., and an army under Pericles in 454 B.C. Nine years later, when the Megarians were at war with the Athenians, the Sicyonians, mindful of the attacks of the latter in preceding years, assisted the former, and entered into alliance with Sparta during the Peloponnesian war (431—404 B.C.). During this eventful period, a revolution took place in Sicyon, about 417 B.C., when, by the aid of the Spartans, an oligarchical form of government was substituted for the democracy, which had endured for a hundred and forty-three years. Partly through inclination, or rather, hatred to Athens, and partly by compulsion, Sicyon was generally found in alliance with Sparta: it took part with this state in the Corinthian war (395—387 B.C.). In the Lamian war, 323 B.C., which was brought to a close in the year following by the battle of Crannon. Sicyon sent troops to the army which the Greek states raised to act against Antipater, the governor of Macedon. When Greece fell under the power of Cassander, in the wars of the generals of Alexander the Great, and the freedom of the Greek cities

was withheld by him, Ptolemy, king of Egypt, came forward as their liberator, and Sicyon and Corinth were surrendered to him by Cratesipolis, the widow of Alexander, the son of Polysperchon, who held them for Cassander, in 308 B.C. It was taken by Demetrius Poliorcetes in 303 B.C., and ultimately in 251 B.C. it joined the Achæan League. It was invaded by the Ætolians in 221 B.C., and finally succumbed to Rome with the rest of Greece in 146 B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Sicyon said to have been founded by Ægialeus	B.C. 2089	ian admiral, on Sicyon	B.C. 456
Sicyon conquered by Agamemnon, king of Argos	„ 1201	Pericles and the Athenians failed in an attempt to take Sicyon	„ 454
Brought into subjection by the Dorians under a Heraclid prince	„ 1074	Revolution in Sicyon: democracy established by the aid of Sparta	„ 417
Involved in the first war between Messenia and Sparta	„ 743	Surrender of the city to Ptolemy by Cratesipolis	„ 308
Orthagoras renders himself absolute in Sicyon, about	„ 676	Siege and capture of Sicyon by Demetrius Poliorcetes	„ 303
Democracy established at the death of the tyrant, Cleisthenes	„ 560	Sicyon enters the Achæan League	„ 251
Unsuccessful attack of Telesides, the Athenian		Suffers from an invasion of the Ætolians	„ 221

## 3. ACHAIA.

The state of Achaia, which gave its name to the province into which Greece was ultimately formed by the Romans, was bounded on the east by Sicyon, on the north by the Gulf of Corinth, on the west by the Ionian Sea, and on the south by Elis and Arcadia. It was first of all occupied by the Pelagi, who were driven out by the Ionians. These in their turn were dispossessed by the Achæans, when the last-named were compelled to make their way northwards from Argos, by the invasion of the Peloponnesus by the Dorians, under the Heraclid princes. To their new possessions the Achæans gave the name of Achaia. Very little is known of the early history of Achaia after its settlement by the Achæans, and it is said to have been at times in

1104

B.C.

subjection to Sicyon and Ætolia. It is probable that the Achæan cities constituted monarchies first of all, and indeed the kings of some of these are named by ancient writers, but after having shaken off the yoke of their kings, the Achæans formed the plan of a federal democratic government, which all the cities of their small republic adopted in such a manner, that, though these towns were united into one body, they possessed their respective liberties, and were independent of each other. It is uncertain when this confederation of the Achæan cities sprang into existence, but it is most probable that they passed through the phases of royalty, oligarchy, and tyranny, like the rest of the Greek states, and that a democratic form of government was adopted, and the cities associated in the first Achæan League about the middle or towards the close of the sixth century B.C. The twelve Achæan cities associated in the league were: Pellene, Ægira, Ægium, Bura, Tritæa, Patræ, Dyme, Pharæ, Rhypæ, Helice, Olenos, and Cerynea. The chief town of the old federation was Helice, but when this city was destroyed by an earthquake, in 373 B.C., the seat of government was transferred to Ægium. The Achæans were joined together by a firm alliance, and governed by the same laws. They had the same money, weights, and measures, the same magistracies, council, and judges, and, in short, everything was so uniform, that all Achæa seemed to be only one city.

The Achæans came prominently into notice in the history of Greece during the struggle against Philip II. of Macedon, and furnished a contingent to the Greek army that was

**338**

B.C.

defeated by Philip at Chæronea. They also took part in the attempt of Sparta to shake off the Macedonian yoke, in 330 B.C., which proved a failure, and ultimately in the troubles which fell on Greece after the partition of Alexander's empire, the old league was dissolved.

After a lapse, however, of fifty years, the Achæans being involved in all the calamities inseparable from discord which

**280**

B.C.

had fallen on Greece, began to revive their ancient union, and return to their former association. The inhabitants of Patræ, Tritæa, Pharæ, and Dyme afforded the first example of this change. They were followed by those of other cities; Ægium and Bura entering the association in 275 B.C., and Cerynea, Leontium, Pellene, and Ægira shortly after; but the league acquired no remarkable strength

till the counsels and achievements of Aratus had given it consistency. Aratus was a native of Sicyon, and, at the age of twenty years, rescued his country from the tyranny of Abantidas, by whom his father, Clinias, had been put to death, and restored to the inhabitants the enjoyment of their former liberties. He induced Sicyon to join the Achæan League, and eight years after, took, by surprise, the citadel of Corinth and the city of Megara, from the Macedonians, and united them to the Achæans. He also prevailed on the cities of Trœzene, Epidauris, Megalopolis (234 B.C.), and Agos (228 B.C.) to join the alliance.

251  
B.C.

All the cities subject to the Achæan League were governed by the great council, or general assembly of the nation, which met twice a year at Ægium. To this assembly, each of the confederate cities sent a certain number of deputies, who were elected by a majority of votes. This assembly enacted laws, disposed of the vacant employments, declared war, made peace, and concluded alliances. The chief magistrate of the whole league, called the *strategus*, was chosen in the general assembly by a majority of votes. His employment was both civil and military. He was assisted by ten magistrates, called *demiurgi*, who, in the absence of the president, had the whole management of civil affairs, and even might, in some extraordinary cases, summon the general assembly, without waiting for the stated time of its meeting. No prince, state, or city, could be admitted into the league, without the consent of the whole alliance. No member of the assembly was to accept of presents from foreign princes. The general assembly was not to sit longer than three days.

Aratus was elected *strategus* of the league in 245 B.C., just at the time when measures were being taken to induce the confederacy of Bœotian cities to join it. The Bœotians, however, were attacked by the Ætolians before the Achæans could come to their assistance, and were compelled to enter the Ætolian League. Just about this period Agis IV. became one of the kings of Sparta, and sought to revive the old martial spirit of the Spartan nation. His plans were foiled by the opposition of Leonidas II., the other king, and he was poisoned in 240 B.C. On the death of Leonidas, however, four years after, his son Cleomenes, who had married the widow of Agis, took active measures to carry out the reforms

that Agis had suggested, and, to effect this, attacked the

**228** Achæans, and vanquished them in several battles.

**B.C.** The Achæans being reduced to great extremity, requested the assistance of Antigonus

Doson, king of Macedon, by whose aid Cleomenes **221**  
was completely defeated at Sellasia, in Laconia, **B.C.**  
and ruined.

**220** Afterwards, the Ætoliens ravaged the territories  
**B.C.** of the Messenians, who belonged to the league.

Aratus attacked the Ætoliens, under great disadvantages, and was defeated with such slaughter, that he advised the Achæans to call for the assistance of Philip, king of Macedon. Philip immediately set out for Greece, but while his troops laid waste Ætolia, the Ætoliens ravaged Macedon, and all was in confusion. During the time that Philip was in Greece, Apelles, to whom the king had committed the affairs of his government, and who was displeased at the esteem which his master testified for Aratus, rendered many well-concerted projects abortive, and caused a mutiny in the army. Philip, therefore, ordered him to be arrested and put to death, a cruel and unjustifiable act, which brought Philip into disrepute throughout Greece.

The calamities which were produced by this war, to which the name of the "Social War" was given, induced all parties, and particularly Philip himself, to wish for peace, which

**217** was at length concluded at Naupactus. The Carthaginian general, Hannibal, however, soon engaged

**B.C.** Philip to take part against the Romans; and the

Macedonian monarch, that he might render himself useful to his new ally, was desirous of subjecting all Greece, and seized on Ithome, a strong place in Messenia. Aratus, not approving of this conquest, spoke frankly on the subject to the king, and displeased Philip. He, therefore, retired to Sicyon, where Philip, fearing the opposition which he might make to his ambitious projects, procured a slow poison to be given him, the effects of which appeared only as the symptoms of an ordinary malady. This great and vir-

**213** tuous man, the chief support of the Achæan League,  
**B.C.** was greatly lamented by the Sicyonians, who

honoured his obsequies by hymns, odes, and funereal games, and decreed that divine honours should be paid to him.

The Ætolians having joined the Romans against Philip, the Achæans, whose troops were then commanded by Philopœmen, espoused the cause of the king of Macedon. Philopœmen defeated the Spartans at Mantinea in 207 B.C., and was so successful in his military operations, that a general peace was concluded on terms very advantageous to the Achæans and their ally. This peace, however, was not of long continuance. Contrary to the terms of the treaty, Philip invaded the Rhodians and the Athenians; and was, therefore, attacked by the Romans, who had the address to procure the alliance of the Achæans.

208

B.C.

198

B.C.

The Romans and Achæans were so successful against Philip, that they obliged him to accept of a peace on such conditions as they thought proper to impose. The principal article was, that the king of Macedon should evacuate all the places which he possessed in Greece. From acting the part of an ally, Flaminius, the Roman general, according to the haughty genius of his nation, passed to that of a protector. At the celebration of the Isthmian games, when deputies from all parts of Greece were assembled, he caused the following decree to be proclaimed: "The senate and people of Rome, and Quintius and Flaminius pro-consul, after having conquered Philip, and given peace to Macedon, declare the Corinthians, the Phœaciæans, the Locrians, the Eubæans, the Magnesians, the Thespians, the Perrhæbians, the Achæans, and the Phthiotes, entirely free. All these nations shall live in an independent state, and be governed only by their own laws."

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B.C.

This general liberty strengthened the Achæan League with several new allies, and among others with Lacedæmon, which Philopœmen delivered from the cruel tyranny of Nabis. In fact, the whole of the states of the Peloponnese were now united in the league. When the Spartans offered the Achæan chief a considerable sum of money from the riches found in the palace of that usurper, he generously refused it, and told them they might always rely on his friendship, which should cost them nothing. Under the conduct of Philopœmen, the Achæan League maintained itself, notwithstanding the secret efforts of the Romans, who being jealous of its great power, endeavoured to subvert and destroy it. At length Messenia separated from the con-

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B.C.

federation, Philopœmen, who immediately invaded this state, was defeated and taken prisoner by the Messenians, who caused him to drink a dose of poison. Thus died one of the greatest heroes that Greece ever produced. To his valour and prudence, Achaia was chiefly indebted for her glory, which, after his death, began to decline; and hence he has been called the last of the Greeks. Most of the cities of Greece erected some trophy to his memory. The Messenians were defeated in the year following by the Achæans, and compelled once more to enter the federation.

The Romans courted the favour of the Achæans so long as they feared that they should succour Persæus, king of Macedon; but when that prince was conquered, they were at no pains to disguise their intentions, but openly commenced those acts of injustice, which finally rendered them masters of Greece. They excited the different cities against each other, suborned the slaves against their masters, kept infamous informers in pay, and soon it became a crime to have failed in attachment to the interest of Rome. They drew up lists of proscribed persons, and sent commissioners, who were appointed to carry their secret sentence into execution. In a public assembly of the Achæans, one of the commissioners insolently required that all those who had assisted Persæus should be previously condemned, and then he would name them. But the people refusing to act so unjust and dishonourable a part, he accused more than a thousand

in number, all men of distinguished merit, and ordered them to appear and plead their cause before the Roman senate. When they arrived in Italy, they were distributed in different cities, and kept as closely confined as if they had been already condemned; and when the council of Achaia sent deputies to Rome to require that their cause might be heard, the senate answered with equal treachery and falsehood, that they had been found guilty

in Achaia. At length, after an imprisonment of seventeen years, these wretched exiles were permitted to return to their own country, broken in spirit, and almost weary of life itself, through the long detention they had suffered in a foreign land.

On their arrival in Greece, they found Achaia split into different factions, and the minds of the common people entirely estranged from the Romans. This aversion was artfully



fomented by the chief magistrates, and the principal men of the republic, who were professed enemies to Rome. 147

Such an universal hatred soon broke out into open war. The Romans, under Lucius Mummius, promptly invaded Greece, and defeated the forces of the league at the battle of Leucopetra, not far from Corinth, which was followed by an engagement under the walls of Corinth itself. The Achæans were again defeated with incredible slaughter; and Diæus, their commander, sought refuge in the city of Megalopolis, where he killed his wife to prevent her from falling into the hands of the enemy, and then took poison, of which he died. On the third day after the action, the victorious general entered Corinth, and, with the exception only of the statues and pictures intended for his triumph, gave the city, abounding with all the accommodations and ornaments of a wealthy metropolis, to be plundered by his soldiers. The walls were then razed, and the city reduced to ashes; and with Corinth fell the Achæan League, of which it was the capital. 146

The Romans abolished the popular government in all the cities, which, however, were permitted to retain their own laws, under the inspection of a prætor; and thus Greece became a Roman province, and was subjected to an annual tribute.

It may be considered that too much space has been devoted to Achaia and the Achæan League, especially as the wars of the league under Philopœmen and his successors form the closing scenes of the history of Ancient Greece as an independent nation. It has, however, been thought better to give a tolerably full account of the league here, its name being derived from the province of Achaia, and its history being so closely connected with that state.

The Achæans driven from Argos, etc., by the Dorians, take possession of Achaia ... B.C. 1104

Probable formation of the old, or first Achæan League about ,, 550

Destruction of Helice, chief city of the league, by an earthquake ..... B.C. 373

Achæans join other Greek states against Philip II. of Macedonia, and are defeated at Chæronea ..... ,, 338

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Achæans driven from Argos, etc., by the Dorians, take possession of Achaia ...	B.C. 1104	chief city of the league, by an earthquake .....	B.C. 373
Probable formation of the old, or first Achæan League about	„ 550	Achæans join other Greek states against Philip II. of Macedonia, and are defeated at Chæronea .....	„ 338
Destruction of Helice,			

Dissolution of the old Achæan League .....	B.C. 330	latter defeated at Mantinea .....	B.C. 207
Revival of the Achæan League by Dyme, Patræ, Tritæa, and Phars .....	„ 280	Alliance between Rome and the Achæan League .....	„ 198
Aratus of Sicyon made Strategus .....	„ 245	The whole of the Peloponnesus becomes subject to the league by the adhesion of Sparta .....	„ 191
Capture of Corinth by Aratus .....	„ 243	Rupture with Messenia: Philopœmen taken prisoner and poisoned by the Messenians .....	„ 183
War between the Achæans and the Spartans, under Cleomenes .....	„ 228	Messenia conquered by the league .....	„ 182
The Achæans and Macedonians defeat Cleomenes and the Spartans at Sellasia .....	„ 221	A thousand Achæans carried as prisoners to Italy by the Romans .....	„ 167
Outbreak of the Social War between the Achæan and Ætolian Leagues .....	„ 220	Return of the exiled Greeks .....	„ 150
Social War brought to an end by the peace of Naupactus .....	„ 217	War declared by Rome against the Achæans .....	„ 148
Death of Aratus by poison at Ægium ...	„ 213	Achæans defeated by Lucius Mummius at Leucopetra and before Corinth, which is sacked and burnt .....	„ 147
Philopœmen becomes strategus of the Achæan League .....	„ 208	Dissolution of Achæan League. Greece becomes a Roman province .....	„ 146
War between the Achæan League and the Spartans: the			

## 4. ELIS.

The state of Elis occupied the western part of the Peloponnesus, and was situated between Achaia on the north, Messenia on the south, Arcadia on the east, and the Ionian Sea on the west. In Elis was the city of Olympia, which was situated on the Olympian plain, where were celebrated the Olympic games, instituted in honour of Jupiter (see page 22). The authentic history of Elis commences with its occupation by a body of Ætolians under Oxylus, who

1104

had entered the Peloponnesus with the Dorians. It is said to have derived its name from Eleus, one of its kings. The care of the Olympic games was a constant source of contention between the people of Elis and the people of Pisa, and was taken from the latter by the

former in the early part of the eighth century B.C., up to which time the Pisceans had held them since the period of their revival by Iphitus in 884 B.C. The Pisceans, by the assistance of the Argives, regained the management of the games in 747 B.C., and retained it for many years. Finally the Eleans took Pisa, in 572 B.C., and levelled it to the ground. In 421 B.C. a war broke out between Sparta and Elis, and the Eleans excluded the Spartans from participation in the games in the following year. They fought, in conjunction with the Argives, Mantineans, and Athenians, with the Spartans in the battle of Mantinea, in 418 B.C., and were defeated; and sixteen years later Elis was invaded by the Spartans, and the Eleans were compelled to give up part of their territories. A war followed with the Arcadians in 366 B.C., in consequence of their having prevented an attempt on the part of the Eleans to recover the territory that had been taken from them by Sparta. The Arcadians were successful, and took from the Eleans some more of their territory; but having committed sacrilege by plundering the temple of Jupiter Olympius, they were compelled by the Greek states to restore the land that they had occupied, and to make peace, which was done in 362 B.C. In 312 Elis was seized by Telesphorus, one of the generals of Antigonos, but it was soon taken from him by Ptolemy. In 274 B.C. Elis joined the Achaean League, and shared its fortunes until the reduction of Corinth by Mummius, and the erection of Greece into the Roman province of Achaia.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Occupation of Elis by Ætolians under Oxy- lus .....	B.C. 1104	the Spartans, and are defeated at Manti- nea .....	B.C. 418
Revival of the Olympic games by Iphitus...	„ 884	Occupation of Elis by the Spartans .....	„ 402
Destruction of the city of Pisa by the Eleans	„ 572	War between Elis and Arcadia: Arcadians victorious.....	„ 366
War between Sparta and Elis .....	„ 421	Elis joins the Achaean League .....	„ 274
Eleans take part against			

## 5. ARCADIA.

Arcadia was supposed to be so called from Arcas, a son of Jupiter and Callisto. It was situated in the middle of the Peloponnesus, having Elis on the west, Argolis on the east,

Messenia and Sparta on the south, and Achaia and Sicyon on the north. Its ground afforded excellent pasturage, and its inhabitants were chiefly shepherds, who were famous for their skill in music. The Arcadians boasted that they were the most ancient people in the world, and called themselves Proseleni, from a notion that they existed before the moon was made. They were early in the field as colonists, for

**1710**

B.C.

Cenotrus, one of their chiefs, is said to have led a band of Arcadians into Italy before the Hellenes entered the Peloponnesus; and from this pioneer of Greek colonization Italy was called Cenotria. At first the Arcadians were a rude and savage people, that lived in the woods and fields, but Pelasgus, one of their early kings,

**1521**

B.C.

taught them to build huts, to live in a sociable manner, to eat nuts, acorns, and beechnuts, as well as roots, and to clothe themselves with the skins of beasts. After Pelasgus, Lycaon is supposed to have been king of Arcadia, and to have established the festival called Lupercalia, in honour of Jupiter, and after him came, at no very long interval, Arcas, who is supposed to have taught the people agriculture and the art of spinning wool. After him is reckoned a long list of kings, of whom nothing curious or interesting is narrated by the ancient writers.

The women of Arcadia were as hardy and brave as the men, who were frequently hired as mercenary soldiers by the neighbouring states. On one occasion, when the country was invaded by the people of Laconia, the women are

**1102**

B.C.

said to have beaten off the aggressors, in the absence of their husbands. This was probably an attempt of the Achæans to establish themselves in Arcadia after the invasion of the Peloponnesus by the Dorians; or an inroad on some of the Arcadian villages, in making their way northwards to Achaia. The kingly power was abolished in Arcadia in 681 B.C., when Aristocrates II. was put to death for treason. A republic was then established. War had been frequent between Arcadia and Sparta, and in 560 B.C., the latter is said to have established its supremacy in the country. In the time, however, of Epaminondas of Thebes, Arcadia was delivered from the Spartan yoke by the Theban general, who founded Megalopolis, a city which became the head of a confederated republic of forty townships, and subsequently played a conspicuous part in the

**370**

B.C.

doings of the Achæan League, which was joined by Arcadia in 232 B.C. In fact, after this time, the history of Arcadia becomes the history of this celebrated league, and is merged in the general history of Greece.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

A colony of Arcadians said to have settled in Italy under CEnotrus .....	B.C. 1710	Lacedæmonians by the Arcadian women	B.C. 1102
Pelægus occupies the throne of Arcadia ...	„ 1521	Aristocrates II. put to death for treason, royalty abolished in Arcadia, and a republic founded .....	„ 681
Lupercalia instituted in honour of Jupiter by Lycaon .....	„ 1514	Spartan supremacy established in Arcadia	„ 560
Arcus reigns in Arcadia, and teaches the useful arts, about ...	„ 1500	Epaminondas delivers Arcadia from the Spartans, and founds Megalopolis.....	„ 371
Institution of the Lycean games in honour of the rustic god Pan	„ 1320	Achæan League joined by Megalopolis and cities of Arcadia.....	„ 232
Repulse of a body of			

## 6. ARGOS.

Argos, or Argolis, was situated in the north-east of the Peloponnesus. It was bounded on the north by Corinth, on the west by Arcadia, on the south by Sparta and the Gulf of Argos, and on the north-east by the Saronic Gulf.

The kingdom of Argos is said to have been founded by Inachus, after whom came nine kings, his lineal descendants, called Inachidæ, from the name of the first of the dynasty. Phoroneus, the son of Inachus, began to reign about a hundred years later, and to him, by some ancient writers, is ascribed the foundation of the kingdom, while others assign its establishment to Argus, the fourth king, who gave his name to the country and its chief city. It appears that at this time the kings of Argos held jurisdiction over the east and south of the Peloponnesus, for in the reign of Triopas, the seventh of the dynasty, a Greek chief, Polycæon by name, took possession of Messenia, and called it thus after the name of his wife. Gelanor, the ninth and last of the Inachidæ, received Danaus, a fugitive from Egypt, accom-

1856

B.C.

1711

B.C.

1552

B.C.

panied by his fifty daughters, with kindness and hospitality, and who repaid his host by driving him from the throne, of which he took possession. Danaus came to Argos twenty-five years before he secured the

1475

B.C.

throne by this treacherous conduct. Lynceus, the husband

1425

B.C.

of Hypermnestra, the only one of the daughters of Danaus who saved her husband, when ordered by Danaus to dispatch him on the night of her nuptials—an order with which her sisters too readily complied—de-throned Danaus, after a reign of fifty years. Subsequently, the kingdom was divided, about 1344 B.C., between Acrisius and Proetus. Acrisius was the father of Perseus, another fa-

1313

B.C.

mous hero of the old Greek writers, who founded Mycenæ. Agamemnon, the famous general-in-chief of the Greek forces during the Trojan war, was in power about 1192 B.C. In 1104 B.C., the Dorian invasion overspread the Peloponnesus, and the Argives or Achæans were compelled to evacuate the country, and retreat to Achaia, where they again established themselves. At the distribution of the territory which the Dorians acquired at this period, Argos itself fell to the share of the Heraclid prince Temenus. By this time Sparta, as well as Messenia, had been emancipated from subjection to Argos, which became a republic about 984 B.C.

The most famous of the descendants of the Heraclid princes of Argos was Pheidon, who rendered himself supreme about 785 B.C., and soon after his accession to power made an unsuccessful attempt to seize Corinth. Pheidon, who was now absolute ruler of Argos, was one of the first of the tyrants who about this time began to overthrow the oligarchies in the Greek states. He made Argos dominant in the Peloponnesus for a short time, and is said to have given impetus to trade and commerce, not only in Argos, but throughout Greece, by the establishment of a medium of exchange in silver and copper, or in other words, silver and copper money, and a system of weights and measures, which, it is said, however, had been for some time in use in the island of Ægina. When a quarrel occurred between the inhabitants of Elis and

748

B.C.

Pisa, as to which had the best right to superintend the management of the Olympic games, and the latter appealed to him for assistance, he answered their request in the most arrogant manner possible, by con-

stituting himself president of the festival. This brought about a rupture with Sparta, and, in the conflict which ensued, Pheidon was defeated, and the importance of Argos in the Peloponnesus greatly diminished.

The conflict between Argos and Sparta endured, with intervals of peace, for a long series of years. In 669 B.C., a desperate battle was fought between the Argives and Spartans near Hysia, in which the former were victorious; but in 548 B.C., fortune turned to the side of the latter, and they took a considerable piece of territory from the Argives, on the coast and the southern frontier of Argos, and annexed it to Laconia. The Argives made a resolute attempt, in the following year, to recover the lost districts, and the contending parties agreed to settle the question by a fight between 300 men on either side. At the close of the conflict two Argives were left alive, and one Spartan, and the Argives claimed the victory. This the Spartans refused to allow, and a battle took place between the armies of the respective states, in which the Spartans were victorious. In 421 B.C., the Argives entered into the league then forming among the Greek states against Sparta, and, three years after, the Argives and Athenians were defeated by the Spartans in the battle of Mantinea. In the following year Argos concluded peace with her old enemy, Sparta; but in 395 B.C., entered on the Corinthian war against the Spartans in conjunction with Corinth, Thebes, and Athens. Nothing more need be recorded with reference to the special history of Argos, except that the city joined the Achæan League in 228 B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Foundation of Argos ascribed to Inachus	B.C. 1856	Quarrel between Elis and Pisa. Pheidon assumes the presidency in the Olympic games .....	B.C. 748
Danæus terminates the dynasty of the Inachids by deposing Gelanor .....	„ 1500	Contest with Sparta, which power is victorious .....	„ 747
Argos subjugated by the Dorians and the Heraclid princes.....	„ 1104	Spartans defeated by the Argives in the battle of Hysia .....	„ 669
Pheidon assumes absolute power at Argos, about .....	„ 785	Encounter between 300 Spartans and 300 Argives, followed by a general battle, in	
Pheidon is unsuccessful in an attempt to take Corinth .....	„ 783		

which the Argives are defeated .....	B.C. 547	in the battle of Man- tinea .....	B.C. 418
Argos joins Athens, etc., in a league against Sparta .....	„ 421	Argos enters into the Corinthian war .....	„ 395
Argives and Athenians defeated by Spartans		The Achæan League joined by the city of Argos .....	„ 228

## 7. MESSENIA.

Messenia occupied the south-western corner of the Peloponnesus, and was bounded by Elis and Arcadia on the north, and Laconia on the east. It has been already said that Messenia was taken from Argos, in the reign of the Argive king, Triopas, by Polycaon, who founded the city of Messene, and called it thus after his wife. When the Heraclid

1500

B.C.

princes and the Dorians conquered the Peloponnesus, Messene was assigned to Cresphontes. Little is known of the early history of Messenia, which is chiefly prominent in the records of Greece during the two great wars which it carried on against the Spartans, and a subsequent revolt against Spartan authority. These are usually spoken

743

B.C.

of as the three Messenian wars. The first of these was occasioned by the Messenians, some of whom had insulted the Spartan women assembled in a temple, to which the people of both nations were accustomed to resort. The reigning king of Sparta, Teleclus, was killed in his attempt to protect the Spartan women from the violence of the Messenian youths, at least, so said the Spartans. The Messenians, however, told a very different story, and declared that Teleclus and several young Spartans, had assembled in the temple in women's clothes, with arms concealed about them, with the view of surprising some of the neighbouring inhabitants; and that, in consequence of the trick being discovered by the Messenians, a quarrel arose, in which Teleclus and some of his associates were slain. It does not matter much which account is correct, but, however this may have been, the Spartans, immediately after, seized on the citadel of Amphæa, and the war began in earnest. In 738 B.C., the Messenians were driven to their last stronghold, in the fortress of Ithome; but this they defended with such unflinching resolution that fifteen years elapsed before it fell. The capture of Ithome put an end to the war in 723



B.C. Both nations were reduced to great straits ; almost all the able-bodied men of Sparta were killed in the long war, and the Messenians were reduced to slavery. The principal leader of the latter in the whole of the war was Aristodemus, who offered his daughter as a victim, when the Delphic oracle ordered a Messenian virgin to be offered in sacrifice to the gods when the fortifications of Ithome were commenced. Her betrothed, anxious to save his promised wife from so cruel a fate, declared that they had already been privately wedded, and Aristodemus, in a passion, killed the poor girl with his own hand. Just before the fall of Ithome, Aristodemus, who had been elected king and commander-in-chief of the Messenians, slew himself in remorse and despair of being able to save his country from the invaders, on his daughter's tomb.

The second Messenian war followed at an interval of thirty-eight years, during which both states had been recruiting their flagging energies. It was provoked by Aristomenes, a young Messenian, who declared to his countrymen that, if the will were good, there was a ready way to emancipate themselves from the domination of Sparta, by the sword. A collision between some Messenians under Aristomenes and a body of Spartans took place, in which the latter were defeated, and Aristomenes, stealing into Sparta under cover of the night, hung on the walls of Minerva's temple a shield, bearing an inscription to show that it was dedicated to that goddess by himself, as an offering from Spartan spoils. 685  
B.C. Admiration of the gallantry of the young Messenian leader, and dislike to Sparta, soon brought the men of Argos, Arcadia, and Elis, as allies to Messenia, while Sparta found support nowhere but at Corinth. Smarting under defeat, the Spartans sent to Delphi to inquire how they might best retrieve their fortunes, and were told to seek aid from Athens. So, to Athens they sent ; and the Athenians, who, at that early date, liked them as well as the men of those states which had joined the Messenians as allies, sent them a poor lame man, who earned a scanty subsistence in Athens as a schoolmaster. This was Tyrtaeus, the lyric poet, who wrote ballad after ballad for the Spartans, and set their blood ablaze by the vigour of his songs. Inspired by these, and chanting them on the march, the Spartans advanced once more against the Messenians, and, after suffering defeat in the battle of the Boar's Tomb, turned the tide of

battle against their foes in the conflict known as the battle of the Great Ditch. Aristomenes then fortified himself in a town called Ira, which was situated, like Ithome, on a hill; and from this stronghold he made continual forays into Spartan territory for about eleven years. It is said that in a skirmish with the Spartans, Aristomenes was hurled, wounded and stunned, into a ravine; but reached the bottom alive, where he lay for three days, waiting for death. Roused by something moving about him, he caught at it, and found it to be a fox, which was the emblem of Messenia, as the lion is the emblem of England, and the sea eagle that of the United States; and holding the animal by the tail, he allowed it to move onwards towards the spot where it had found an entrance. When he arrived there, with his strange companion, he saw the light of day through some crevices in a heap of stones that had been piled against the entrance, and he soon managed to make his way out, and rejoin his countrymen. At last, Ira was carried by assault during a storm, and the second Messenian war was brought to a close in 668 B.C. Some of the Messenians, with Aristomenes and his sons, escaped to Rhodes, and others, sailing westward, took forcible possession of Zancle, and changed its name to Messenia, now Messina. The rest of the inhabitants were reduced to slavery, and Messenia was now nothing more than a dependency of Laconia.

The Messenians, broken in spirit and fortunes, could do nothing more than accept their hard fate, and bear it with patience, and no attempt was made for about two hundred

464

B.C.

years to release themselves from Spartan dominion. At last, when Sparta was almost destroyed by an earthquake, and the Helots or slaves took advantage of the confusion that ensued to break into revolt, the Messenians thought that the time had come to achieve their independence, and flew to arms. Ithome was once more fortified, and became the centre of the insurrection, or rather war of independence. The war dragged on for nine years, and was brought to an end in the tenth year of its duration by

455

B.C.

the capture of Ithome. The Messenians obtained leave from their conquerors to quit the Peloponnesus, taking an oath that if they ever returned they would suffer themselves to be sold as slaves. The Athenians, to whom they appealed for succour in their misery,

obtained permission for some of the exiles to settle at Naupactus, and a few of these and their descendants were brought back to their own country during the Peloponnesian war. A long time, however, was not to elapse before a change for the better was to come over Messene. In 371 B.C. the Spartans were totally defeated by Epaminondas, at the battle of Leuctra, and the Theban general, to humble his adversaries yet more, and to create a power which might be instrumental in keeping them in check, determined to rebuild Messene and recall the Messenian exiles from the different towns and countries in which they had taken refuge to their native land. This was done, and Messenia, once more a power and independent state in Greece, maintained her liberty under the protection of Thebes, although it never rose into any particular prominence. The Messenians fought on the winning side in the battle of Sellasia, when the power of Sparta was broken, for ever by the troops of the Achæan League and the Macedonians, under the Macedonian king Antigonus Doson, but at a later period, about thirty-eight years after, having had the temerity to oppose the league, they were attacked and completely defeated, and Messene, their chief city, was occupied. From this point the history of Messene presents nothing remarkable, and in 146 B.C. it shared the common fate of Greece, and became a part of the Roman province of Achaia.

369  
B.C.221  
B.C.183  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The kingdom and city of Messene founded by Polycaon, about	B.C. 1500	Commencement of second Messenian war, under Aristomenes...	B.C. 685
Messene assigned to the Heraclid prince, Cresphontes.....	„ 1104	Capture of Ira and termination of second Messenian war .....	„ 668
Commencement of the first Messenian war with Sparta.....	„ 743	The Messenians attempt to recover their independence, and commence the third Messenian war .....	„ 461
Messenians compelled to fortify themselves in Ithome.....	„ 738	Capture of Ithome and end of the third Messenian war .....	„ 455
Capture of Ithome and end of first Messenian war .....	„ 723	Re-establishment of	

Messenian independence by Epaminondas .....	B.C. 369	in which the Spartans are defeated.....	B.C. 220
Messenians take part in the battle of Sellasia,		Messenia conquered by the troops of the Achæan League.....	.. 183

## 8. LACEDÆMON, OR SPARTA.

This country was originally denominated Laconia, afterwards Sparta, from the metropolis; and Lacedæmon, from one of its ancient kings. It was situated in the south-east corner of Peloponnesus, having Argos and Arcadia on the north, Messenia on the west, the Gulf of Argos, or Argolis, on the east, and the Mediterranean on the south. The city of Lacedæmon or Sparta, which was the most powerful in Greece, stood at the foot of Mount Taygetus, on the banks of the river Eurotas, about three miles from the modern Greek town of Mistra. The Lacedæmonians were a brave and warlike people, and jealous of their honour and their liberty, as well as of the power of their neighbours.

The precise origin of the name Laconia is not known; but that of Lacedæmon was obtained, as it has been said, from one of its old kings, Lacedæmon, a son of Jupiter, who married Sparta, the daughter of Lelex and sister of Eurotas. It is from this woman that the name of the capital was derived.

**1704** The Spartan or Lacedæmon government was at first  
B.C. monarchical, and was founded by Lelex, from whom

the country was called Lelegia. It is, however, more probable that this name was derived from its early inhabitants, the Leleges. The descent of the thirteen kings by whom Sparta is said to have been governed prior to the Dorian invasion in 1104 B.C. is not very clear. One of these was Tyndarus, who married Leda, the mother of Helen, who was famous for her beauty. She had not lived more than three years with her husband Menelaus, when Paris, son of Priam, king of Troy, who was universally accounted the handsomest man of his age, arrived in Sparta. His person, attainments, and address attracted the affections of Helen;

**1198** and she abandoned her country, her husband, and  
B.C. relations, and was transported with all her wealth to the Trojan land. The Greeks united in the cause of Menelaus, and took Troy after a siege of ten years (1193

—1183 B.C.). Afterwards, the kingdoms of Argos, Mycenæ, and Lacedæmon, were formed into one sovereignty under Orestes, the son of Agamemnon. 1175  
B.C.

The Heraclidæ, or posterity of Hercules, having expelled Tisamenes, the son of Orestes, divided among them the countries which they had subdued. Aristodemus would have had Lacedæmon, but as he was killed while on his way to the Peloponnesus, the country was assigned to his two sons, Eurysthenes and Procles. These brothers, who thus obtained the sovereignty of Sparta, neither divided the kingdom between them, nor reigned alternately; but ruled conjointly and with equal authority, and each was styled king of Sparta, and acknowledged in that capacity. This singular and seemingly inconsistent form of government continued upwards of eight hundred years. The kings descended from Procles were called Proclidæ or Proclid kings, and those descended from Eurysthenes were called Eurysthenidæ or Eurysthenid kings.\* 1104  
B.C.

\* The following are the kings of Sparta in each line, with the dates of their accession to the throne.

## PROCLID KINGS.

Procles .....	B.C. 1102	Demaratus .....	B.C. 256
Soos .....	" 1060	Leotychides .....	" 491
Eurypon .....	" 1028	Archidamus II. ....	" 466
Prytanis .....	" 1021	Agis II. ....	" 427
Eanomeus .....	" 986	Agésilas II. ....	" 397
Polydectes .....	" 907	Archidamus II. ....	" 361
Lycurgus I. ....	" 898	Agis III. ....	" 338
Charilaus .....	" 873	Eudamidas I. ....	" 330
Nicander .....	" 809	Archidamus III. ....	" 295
Theopompus .....	" 770	Eudamidas II. ....	" 268
Zenxidamus .....	" 723	Agis IV. ....	" 244
Anaxidamus .....	" 690	Archidamus IV. ....	" 230
Archidamus I. ....	" 651	Euclidas .....	" 225
Agapides .....	" 605	Lycurgus II. ....	" 219
Ariston .....	" 564		

## EURYSTHENID KINGS.

Eurystheus .....	B.C. 1102	Archilaus .....	B.C. 913
Agis I. ....	" 1059	Teleclus .....	" 853
Echestratus .....	" 1058	Alcamenes .....	" 813
Labotas .....	" 1023	Polydorus .....	" 776
Doryssus .....	" 986	Eurycrates I. ....	" 724
Agésilas I. ....	" 957	Anaxander .....	" 687

The Proclid king Lycurgus, the tenth in descent from Hercules, recived the sceptre on the death of his brother Polydectes, in 898 B.C. ; but his sister-in-law proving pregnant, he resigned the crown, though she intimated to him that, if he would marry her, the child should be destroyed. Lycurgus received the infant whilst at supper with some of the principal persons of the city, and presented him to them, saying, "My lords of Sparta, here is a king born to us." Then placing the child on the chair of state, and perceiving how much the company were overjoyed, he named him Charilaus. However, finding that the queen and her partizans were extremely irritated at his conduct, he determined on a voluntary exile, and visited Crete, Egypt, and Asia. At length, the Spartans invited him to return and regulate their government.

Having first obtained the approbation and assistance of the Delphic oracle, Lycurgus promulgated his laws.

885

B.C.

His first act was to establish a senate, which was composed of thirty members, including the kings, whose office consisted in preserving a just balance between the power of the kings and that of the people. No matter which had not received the previous consent of the senate could be brought before the assembly of the people ; and, on the other hand, the judgment of the senate was not effectual without the sanction of the people. The kings presided in the senate. They were the generals of the republic ; but

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EURYSTHENID KINGS—*continued.*

Eurycrates II. ....	B.C. 644	Agesipolis II.....	B.C. 371
Leon .....	607	Cleomenes II.....	370
Anaxandrides.....	563	Arcus I. ....	309
Cleomes I. ....	530	Acrotatus.....	265
Leonides I. ....	491	Arens II. ....	264
Plistarchus .....	480	Leonidas II. ...	257
Plistoanax .....	466	Cleombrotus .....	243
Pausanias.....	408	Leonidas II. restored...	241
Agesipolis I. ....	397	Cleomenes .....	235
Cleombrotus .....	380	Agesipolis III. ....	219

The reader will notice that the commencement of the first Messenian war is said to have taken place in 743 B.C., and that a Spartan king, Teleclus, was killed in the first skirmish in this year. On referring to the table we find that Teleclus reigned from 853 to 813 B.C., and that no Spartan king, if the dates in the table be correct, fell at the time fixed for the commencement of the first Messenian war. The above discrepancy is pointed out to show how little readers can depend on ancient chronology, generally speaking.

they could not plan any enterprise without the consent of a council of the citizens. They were merely the first citizens in the state, and enjoyed only the shadow of royalty.

The people had their assemblies, and possessed a nominal share in the government of Sparta; but as the senate convened and dismissed them at pleasure, and they held no offices in the state, their real power was very insignificant. In order, however, to depress the insolence, pride, and luxury of the great and wealthy, and banish want and misery from the dwellings of the poor, Lycurgus divided all Laconia into thirty-nine thousand shares, of which nine thousand were assigned to the inhabitants of Sparta, who were the descendants of the Dorian invaders, and the remainder to the people of Laconia, who were held in subjection by the Spartans. These portions could never be divided, but passed entire to the heirs, or those who acquired them.

Lycurgus withdrew all the silver and gold in circulation, and permitted only iron money to be given in exchange. This coin was made of iron heated in the fire, and quenched in vinegar, that it might be rendered brittle, and unfit for any other use. From that time all commerce with foreign nations was annihilated, and the ships of another country never entered the harbours of Laconia. Lycurgus even prohibited commerce to the Spartans, abolished all useless arts, and allowed those necessary to life to be practised only by slaves.

The next ordinance was, that all, even the kings themselves, should make their principal repast at the public tables, where moderation and frugality were exercised. The meals were coarse and parsimonious; and the conversation was calculated to improve the youth in virtue, and cultivate a patriotic spirit.

All children, as soon as born, were commanded to be brought by their parents, that they might be examined by persons appointed for that purpose. Those that were well-made and vigorous were preserved; but such as were weak or deformed were exposed to perish at the foot of Mount Taygetus. As no Spartan was permitted to have his children educated according to his own pleasure, the boys at the age of seven years were sent to the public schools. Their education rejected all embellishments, and cherished only the severer virtues. It taught the duties of religion, obedience to the laws, respect for parents, reverence for old age, inflexible

honour, undaunted courage, contempt of danger and death, and, above all, the love of glory and of their country.

The general excellence of the laws of Lycurgus was shaded by many blemishes. The Lacedæmonian women frequented the baths, and contended in the public sports promiscuously with the men, and this rendered them bold and forward in manner. Theft constituted a part of the education of the Spartans. Youths were taught to subdue the feelings of humanity, and the slaves were treated with the most barbarous rigour, and often massacred in sport and wantonness.

Lycurgus, having thus perfected, as he supposed, the form of the Lacedæmonian republic, endeavoured to render it stable and permanent. For this purpose, he obliged the Lacedæmonians, by an oath, to promise that they would observe his laws till his return from Delphi. From Delphi he sent to Lacedæmon the following answer of the oracle: "The laws given to the Spartans are excellent; and the state, while it continues to observe them, shall be the most glorious and potent in the world." Lycurgus then voluntarily starved

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himself to death. Some, however, say, that he died in Crete, and commanded his ashes to be thrown into the sea, lest they should afterwards be carried to Sparta, and the Lacedæmonians consider themselves as released from their oath.

It is said that Alcamenes, Eurysthenid king of Sparta, led the Spartans against the Messenians soon after his accession, but the first Messenian war, of which the cause, as well as the result, has been narrated in the separate history of Messenia (see page 80), began in 743 B.C. It should, however, be said, that the date of its commencement is altogether uncertain. According to the table of Spartan kings, Theopompus (Proclid) and Polydorus (Eurysthenid) were reigning at this time, and the story of the death of Teleclus at the hands of the Messenians must be false. Probably the Teleclus that is spoken of was merely the leader of the band of Spartans that went in disguise to the temple on the borders of Messenia and Sparta, and hence the mistake has arisen.

About this time were instituted the ephors, who were five in number, and chosen annually by the people from their own body, and who gradually acquired an unlimited authority. They presided in the general assemblies, declared war, made peace, determined the number of troops, regulated the taxes,



and distributed punishments and rewards. In short, their power, though in some respects subordinate, was in others paramount even to that of the kings and the senate. They could bring the kings to trial before the senate, and whenever the king headed the army and marched to the field, two of the ephors accompanied him to report on his conduct.

The conditions imposed on the Messenians were so oppressive that they revolted, and took for their general Aristomenes, who commenced the second Messenian war. An account of this has also been given (see page 81). With the conclusion of this war in 668 B.C., much, if not all of the interest that has attached itself to the early history of Sparta ceases. Sparta was now on the high road to supremacy in Southern Greece, and there were few in the peninsula and mainland, too, which did not regard her success in the second Messenian war with fear and suspicion. War with Argos had been frequently carried on, and in 747 the Argives had been defeated by the Spartans. Later, again, in 669 B.C., the Spartans were worsted by the Argives in the battle of Hysiaë; but subsequently, in 547, secured a considerable portion of the Argive territory by being victorious in the general battle that followed the conflict between 300 men on either side, and in which each party claimed the victory. The Spartans were at war more than once with Arcadia, but the most memorable event in the course of their contest with this state was the subjection of Tegea, a city which was immediately received into alliance with her former enemy, and in which the bones of Orestes were discovered. These, according to the command of the oracle, were removed to Sparta.

The Greek colony of Samos had become so powerful by sea that no state could compete with its fleet, which was supreme in Grecian waters. A war broke out between Samos and Sparta, while the former was at the height of its renown, during which the latter managed to hold its own against the great naval state. It was towards the close of this war that the murder of Hipparchus was perpetrated by Harmodius and Aristogiton at Athens, and Hippias began to rule at Athens with an iron hand. Chief among the enemies of the Athenian tyrant were the Alcmeonidae, who had enlisted the sympathies of most of the Greek states on their side by doing more in rebuilding the temple

of Apollo at Delphi than was provided for in their contract. The oracle had declared that freedom must be restored to Athens, and the Alcæonids and the malcontents within the walls turned to Sparta for aid. The Spartans, who had broken the power of the tyrants in many of the states, and who had been tolerably successful in the war with Samos, re-

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B.C.

sponded readily to their call, and fitted out an expedition against Hippias. How the tyrant of Athens was worsted in the attempt to retain his power by force of arms, and how he sought a refuge at the court of the Persian king Darius, has been already told, and it only remains to be said that as soon as the object in view had been accomplished, the Spartan king Cleomenes withdrew his troops from Athens and returned to his capital.

It may be as well to pause for a moment at this point and consider the position of Sparta in Greece. Nominally a kingdom, it was actually a republic, and by the nature of its institutions was opposed to the exercise of any manly virtue except bravery. The Spartans thought nothing of a man who could not bear hunger and hard blows without a murmur; they sneered at the superior refinement and civilisation of Athens, and, doubtless, feeling themselves inferior to her inhabitants in every respect, except brute strength and endurance, though they were careful not to acknowledge it even to each other, they longed for an opportunity of humbling her. And why, it may be asked, were the Spartans obliged to have recourse to this system, and why did Lycurgus originate such laws as he did for their guidance? The answer is obvious. The Spartans were a nation within a nation—a band of Dorians in the midst of a mixed population, chiefly of the lower class of Achæans, who were prevented from emigrating after the Dorian invasion, and compelled to remain on the soil. These people, called *Periæci*, or dwellers about Sparta, had no share in the government which was reserved for themselves by the dominant Spartans, who intermarried only among themselves, and carefully abstained from alliances with the *Periæci*. As these were more numerous than the Spartans, being, perhaps, in the proportion of three to one, and as the nations or states around Laconia were always animated with hostile feelings towards the paramount men of Dorian descent, the Spartans could only expect to hold their own by mere force of arms, and for this reason did everything they

could to improve the power of the body, and call into action the more brutal qualities of the mind, neglecting altogether to temper these by the culture of the higher qualities, which, in their opinion, only tended to render men effeminate and unwarlike. It has been said that Sparta was a republic actually, though nominally a kingdom. This is evident when it is considered how the Spartans, who were the governing body of Laconia, kept their kings, who held nominal rule over them in check by the action of the Ephors, who were elected by themselves. The people, therefore, were positively their own rulers, and were in a position to make laws for themselves; they held the power in their own hands, and exercising it through their representatives the Ephors, rendered their kings no more than the executive officers of the nation, the presiding authorities over festivals and religious ceremonies in time of peace, the generals-in-chief and leaders of their armies in time of war.

Mention has been made of the Spartans, who were the governing and superior class in Lacedæmon, and the Pericæci, who were the free people of the country, but who were deprived of participation in the government. There was a class yet lower than this—the wretched Helots, or slaves, of whom little or nothing has been said. The name is supposed to be derived from the Greek *helein*, to take, and to signify in the first instance a prisoner of war, as all captives thus taken were held by the Greeks in bondage; but some think that it originated in the Helotæ, or people of Helos, a city of Laconia, which the Spartans took about 833 B.C., and razed to the ground, because its inhabitants refused to pay the tribute which the Spartans exacted from all the Laconian cities. The Helotæ were reduced to the most abject state of slavery, and their name was afterwards applied to all slaves in Sparta. They were considered the property of the state, and cultivated the land of the Spartans, and attended their masters to the field. The Spartans, however, were in constant fear of an insurrection among them, and whenever they grew too numerous a number of young Spartans were selected and sent out armed with daggers, or what was called the *Cryptaria*, or secret mission. The youths lay concealed by day, but by night they came forth from their lurking places and passed through the land murdering every Helot that they happened to meet.

Paris, the son of Priam .....	„ 1198	tans, and bitants re slavery ....
Commencement of the Trojan War .....	„ 1193	Commencement of Second Mess
Orestes, the son of Agamemnon, becomes supreme over Argos, Mycæna, and Laconia ..	1175	The Spartans by the A Hysie .....
Dorian invasion: Procles and Eurysthenes reign jointly in Sparta .....	„ 1102	Conclusion of Messenian V
Lycurgus, afterwards the Spartan lawgiver, becomes king of Sparta ..	898	Reduction of which is rec alliance with
Promulgation of code of laws by Lycurgus, about .....	„ 885	War between tans and Combat bet hundred me side .....
Death of Lycurgus, and accession of Charilaus ..	873	War between tans and Samos .....
Ephors appointed by the Spartan king Theopompus, about .....	„ 755	Interference with the Athens ...
War between the Spartans and the Argives ..	787	

## CHAPTER VI.

### FROM THE FLIGHT OF HIPPIAS TO THE EUBYMEDON.—THE GREAT PERSI

510 B.C. to 466 B.C.

period when Persia attempted, without success, to add to her empire by the subjugation of Greece. Before doing this, however, it is necessary to see what events had followed the flight of Hippias from Athens.

The interference of the Spartans, which drove Hippias from his native country, paved the way for the return of the Alcmaeonids, who immediately took up their residence in Athens. They did not, however, recover their former position among the Athenian nobility, who regarded them as being still under a curse, and they were excluded from any participation in power by the aristocracy of the city, at whose head was Isagoras, who had found a friend in the Spartan king, Cleomenes. The Alcmaeonids, therefore, resolved to throw themselves on the people, and Cleisthenes, the head of that family, soon succeeded, by their support, in importing considerable changes into the Athenian constitution.

The old system, in which were four tribes, divided and subdivided into *phratries*, *gentes*, and *families*, were entirely done away with, and the whole soil of Attica was divided into districts called *demes*. These demes were grouped into ten tribes, but the demes of each tribe were purposely scattered throughout the country, and did not form a single and undivided district, so that there might be less chance of any particular party becoming predominant in a deme through identity of interests among its population. The whole population, except the slaves, were distributed among the demes, and thus became possessed of the elective franchise, such as it was. The senate was now composed of 500 members, of whom fifty were chosen from each tribe being selected, not by voting, but by lot, from persons eligible for office, and willing to accept it. Once elected, the members were divided into ten groups, called *prytanies*, each of which took the lead in the senate by turn for the *tenth* part of the year. Each prytany was subdivided into five parties of ten, which in like manner took precedence in the senate by turns, for the *fiftieth* part of the year, or—to use a term which an English reader will better understand—for a week. The members of these subdivisions were called *proedri* or presidents, and every day one of the proedri for the week was selected by lot as *epistates*, or chief of the senate. The chief of the senate, in addition to presiding over its deliberations, was entrusted with the care of the treasury and acropolis or citadel of Athens: and also

presided over the general assembly of the people, in which all measures of general interest and affecting the whole body politic were freely discussed. The archons were elected as before, but they possessed no power in the state as heretofore, the power being transferred to the people at large. The polemarch, as the third archon was called, exercised the same functions as heretofore, but he was assisted by ten strategi or generals, of whom one was elected by each tribe. The polemarch and his subordinates led the Athenian troops in time of war, and were entrusted with the management of foreign affairs.

In addition to these changes, Clisthenes invented a process for getting rid of any obnoxious citizen and sending him into exile. This was called ostracism—because the voting was managed by writing on an oyster-shell or tile. Whenever the senate considered that any citizen was taking steps that might prove prejudicial to the state, they called on the people, without naming the person whom they had in view, to write, each man on his shell, the name of the Athenian that each might think capable of sinister designs against the Athenian democracy. The tiles, after collection, were scrutinised in the agora, or market place, by the president of the senate for the day, and the archons, and any man whose name was inscribed on 6000, or more, was obliged to go into exile for ten years. He might, however, be recalled by the vote of the people at any time, and subsequently the period of banishment was reduced to five years. The ostracised citizen experienced no further detriment than compulsory absence from home, and the Athenians were never permitted to resort to this mode of procuring the banishment of one of their number unless it was thought necessary by the senate.

The innovations of Clisthenes rendered the commonwealth of Athens far more democratic than it had been before, in fact rendered it a thorough democracy, in which the people had the upper hand, and became the governors as well as the governed. The alterations made by Solon in the constitution had been a step in this direction, retraced, perhaps, by Pisistratus and his sons, who had introduced personal government, but the measures of Clisthenes took all power out of the hands of the nobles, and equalised its exercise among all classes. Resolved not to submit without a struggle, Isagoras called Cleomenes and the Spartans to his aid. Clisthenes

left Athens in haste, and the aristocratic party resorted to harsh measures, which stung the people into retaliation. They flew to arms, and Isagoras and his allies retreated into the Acropolis, which was closely besieged by the people. At last, when all their resources failed them, the generals of the beleaguered troops surrendered, and Cleomenes and his men were allowed to return to Sparta. Isagoras accompanied them, but Clisthenes finding the way clear re-entered Athens in triumph. A brief reign of terror followed the surrender of the Acropolis, during which many of the supporters of Isagoras were killed by the people. This was the commencement of the long fight for supremacy that ensued between Athens and Sparta, of which the former was the representative of democracy, or government emanating from the people as the source of power, and the latter of oligarchy, or the dominion of the lesser number over the greater.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Radical change in Athenian constitution effected by Clisthenes .....	B.C. 509	Spartans called in by Isagoras and blockaded in the Acropolis B.C. 508
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## 2. ON THE EVE OF THE PERSIAN WAR.

The passions of both parties were now at fever heat, and a dense cloud of war gathered and hung over the peninsula of Attica. A confederacy of the principal states of the Peloponnese, in which Sparta held the first place and Corinth the second, was formed against Athens, and the troops of the allies, with a contingent from Thebes, and a body of men from Chalcis, in Euboea, entered Attica. Their purpose was to make Isagoras the ruler of Attica, but they hesitated at the remonstrance of some of the members of the confederation, and gave up their plan. Clisthenes, fearing that their united forces would crush Athens, endeavoured to induce Darius to espouse his quarrel, and would have presented earth and water to him in token of the inferiority and submission of Athens, had not the proud Athenians refused to permit such an act of servility. Hippias, who was still at Sigeum, and had not yet repaired to the Persian court, must have smiled when he saw the curious turn affairs were taking. His restoration was proposed by the Spartans, at a conference held at

Sparta among the leaders of the confederate states, and at which Hippias himself was said to have been present, but their plans were foiled by Corinth, who dissuaded the representatives of the assembled powers from attempting to force any form of government on Athens against its will, especially one which was most hateful to the Athenians, and no further action was taken in the matter. The Athenians, unfortunately, were not content to let bygones be bygones, and satisfied with the power thus afforded to them of following their inclination with regard to the regulation of their internal affairs. They chose rather to indulge the spirit of revenge, and attacked Chalcis, the weakest of the allied states that had

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B.C.

interfered in behalf of Isagoras. Chalcis fell, and the town and surrounding territory was divided into lots and distributed among Athenian colonists.

Thus it was that Athens first obtained power in the island of Eubœa. Thinking that they themselves might next be attacked by the Athenians, the Thebans sought to turn the war from their own territories by persuading the inhabitants of

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B.C.

the island of Ægina, who possessed a powerful fleet, to make a descent upon Attica. An unimportant war ensued and lasted for some time, and at the beginning of the fifth century B.C. Ægina still found herself supreme in the waters of the Saronic Gulf.

Let us now turn to events which were in progress outside the limits of Greece, but with which Greek colonists had much to do. Greece, in fact, was now on the eve of the Persian war. Persia at this time was under Darius Hystaspes, who had ascended the throne in 521, and to whom the Greek colonies on the coast of Asia Minor were subject. The Thracian Chersonese, the long and narrow tongue of land which helps to form the passage of the Hellespont on its north-western side, was under Miltiades, who subsequently became famous in Grecian history. The peninsula had been colonised in the time of Pisistratus by Miltiades the Elder, who was succeeded by his nephew Stesagoras the Elder, son of his half-brother Cimon, in his government. On the death of Stesagoras it fell to his younger brother, Miltiades, who

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B.C.

strengthened himself by marrying the daughter of the Thracian king, Olorus. When Darius invaded the country of the Scythians, Histæus, the tyrant of Miletus, with the tyrants of the other Greek colo-



nies in Asia Minor, and Miltiades accompanied him as far as the Danube, and remained to guard the bridge by which the king and his army crossed that river and entered the Scythian wilds. They had waited the full time appointed by Darius for his return, when some Scythians came to them with the news that he was retreating, and counselled them to destroy the bridge and leave Darius to be crushed by their countrymen. Miltiades supported the proposal, but the counsel of Histæus to leave the bridge intact prevailed, and the Persian king and his army continued their retreat in safety. It was on his way home that he compelled the Macedonian monarch to acknowledge himself to be his vassal, by the presentation of earth and water, and that the Athenians sought his aid against the Spartans and their allies. Histæus having incurred the suspicions of Darius for something or other that he had done, was taken by the Persian king to Susa, and Darius left his brother Artaphernes to take care of Asia Minor. Aristagoras, the son-in-law of Histæus, was left in authority at Miletus.

A few years after the democrats and oligarchists of Naxos, one of the Cyclades, came to blows, and the latter being the weaker party applied for aid to Aristagoras, who persuaded Artaphernes to send an expedition to the island. This he did, but warned the democratic party of its coming, and so rendered it a failure. Aristagoras discovering his treachery, and being persuaded to the act by a communication from Histæus, declared the independence of Miletus, and his example was followed in all the Greek cities on the seaboard of Asia Minor that owed allegiance to Darius. Aristagoras made a tour of the Greek states, and gained aid from the Athenians and Eretrians, who sent the former twenty and the latter five ships to his assistance. It was this act of the Athenians that drew on Greece the Persian invasion. The Athenian fleet did not long remain in Ionian waters. The Ionians, who had gained many allies on the coast of Asia Minor and the contiguous islands, protracted the struggle for six years, but at last their fleet was totally defeated off Lade by the fleet of Artaphernes. Miletus was then besieged and carried by assault, and in two years more (493 B.C.) the revolt was completely suppressed, and the whole of Ionia and the west coast of Asia Minor reduced to obedience.

502  
B.C.

495  
B.C.

As soon as this had been done, Darius ordered his son-in-law, Mardonius, who had succeeded Artaphernes as satrap of Asia Minor, to prepare an expedition against Greece.

**492** Mardonius did so, and entered Thrace with a large  
B.C. and well-appointed army, and sent his fleet round

Mount Athos, to sail along the coast of Greece and co-operate with the troops on shore. The army, weakened by losses and defections in passing through Thrace, contrived to conquer Macedonia, but the fleet was almost entirely destroyed off Mount Athos by a violent storm, and Mardonius with difficulty regained Asia Minor with the residue of his army.

Thwarted in the attainment of his object, the desire of Darius for revenge on Greece became, if possible, far stronger than before. He sent heralds to all the Greek states, demanding their submission and the customary presentation of earth and water. Athens and Sparta resented the demand by maltreating the Persian heralds, but most of the other states submitted, and among the number Ægina, whose fleet was the most powerful in Greece. This was looked on as an act of treachery by Athens, and the Athenians called on the Spartans to help them in punishing the people of Ægina for their perfidy. Cleomenes invaded the island, and compelled the Æginetans to give hostages to the Athenians for their future good conduct, and the fleet of Ægina was thus secured for Greece. The bold front displayed by Athens and

**491** Sparta at this crisis gave courage to the other states  
B.C. of Greece. The national spirit was fairly roused at

last, and to resist the common foe to the utmost a confederation of all the Greek states was formed, in which Sparta took the lead.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Attica by Spartans. Restoration of Isagoras first, and afterwards of Histaus prevented .....	B.C. 507	Disturbances at Naxos. Revolt of the Ionian cities .....	B.C. 502
Subjugation of Chalcis by the Athenians .....	„ 506	Defeat of Ionian fleet by Persians off Ladé .....	„ 495
Quarrel between Ægina and Athens promoted by Thebes .....	„ 505	Siege and capture of Miletus and suppression of Ionian revolt .....	„ 494
Invasion of Scythia by Darius Hystaspes, king of Persia .....	„ 507	Unsuccessful attempt of Mardonius to invade Greece .....	„ 492
		The Greek states determine to resist Darius ..	„ 491

## 3. THE FIRST PERSIAN INVASION.—MARATHON.

Incensed at the failure of the expedition under Mardonius, and the treatment offered to his envoys by the Athenians and Spartans, Darius caused immense preparations to be made for a second attempt to subjugate Greece, and assembled a large army in the plains of Cilicia.

490

B.C.

When the spring was sufficiently advanced, the Persians embarked in a fleet of six hundred triremes, and sailed for Greece. A great part of this fleet was gathered from the Greek cities on the coasts and islands of Asia Minor. A Mede, Datis by name, and Artaphernes commanded the fleet and army, and Hippias, the ex-tyrant of Athens, who had long been living at the court of Darius, accompanied them. Instead of working southward through Thrace and Macedonia, it had been determined to land on the coast of Attica, and accordingly the fleet slowly made its way westward, reducing many of the Greek islands of the Cyclades on its way. After taking Carystus and Eretria in Euboea, the Persians, in September, 490 B.C., landed in the Bay of Marathon, which Hippias had pointed out as the best place for the disembarkation of the troops.

News travelled slowly in those days, and the landing of the Persians seems to have taken the Greeks by surprise. A messenger was immediately despatched to Sparta with the intelligence, and to summon the Spartan troops; but it was a rule with the Spartans never to march against an enemy, or to undertake an expedition, except at the time of the full moon. When the messenger arrived it wanted about six days to this period, and the Spartans would not quit their city. As soon as they could do so without violation of their rule, they hastened northwards by forced marches, but before they could arrive the decisive battle had been fought by the Athenians and Plateans, and the Persians had been defeated.

On landing the Persians had determined to swoop down on Athens without longer delay than was necessary to set the troops in order and provide for the commissariat department. In Athens all was confusion and indecision. Miltiades, who had returned from the Thracian Chersonese to Athens, after taking the islands of Lemnos and Imbros from the Persians, and had been elected as one of the ten strategi, who assisted the polemarch in the management of war and foreign affairs,

urged the necessity of attacking the enemy while the troops were yet in the confusion caused by the landing, and as four of his colleagues and the polemarch Callimachus were of his opinion, the Athenian troops were marshalled, and marched with a contingent of six hundred heavy-armed men from Platæa to the plains of Marathon.

The combined troops of Athens and Platæa could not have amounted at the utmost to more than 20,000 men of all arms. The Persian army in the field, although it has been reckoned by some writers to have reached the enormous total of 600,000, in all probability numbered about 120,000, of whom 30,000 were heavy-armed troops, and 10,000 cavalry. The Greeks, under the command of Miltiades, moved down from the hills round Marathon into the plain, and took up a position in an extended line opposite the Persians, who lay between them and the sea. In order to make the line of battle as long as possible, and to prevent being out-flanked and surrounded by the Persians, Miltiades had thrown out his wings as far as possible at the expense of the centre, which was materially weakened by this necessary disposition of the troops. He placed this part under the command of the strategi Aristides and Themistocles, afterwards so well known in Greek history, and gave the right wing to Callimachus, and the left to the general of the Platæans. When all was ready the signal was given, and the whole Greek line advanced at the double, to use our own expression, and soon crossed the mile of ground that separated them from the astonished Persians, whose battle order was the less effective, as it consisted of a line, or rather a mass, several men deep. The charge of the Greeks was successful on either wing, and the Persians opposed to them were beaten back towards the sea; but in the centre the heavy-armed troops of Darius withstood the onset of the Athenians, and after a short hand-to-hand struggle compelled them to retreat. Seeing this, and the routed wings of the Persian being in too great confusion to rally, the wings of the Greek army changed their front and attacked the Persian centre on either side. This gave the Greek centre time and opportunity to rally, and the Persians fled in haste to their ships, hotly pursued by the victorious Greeks. It is said that 192 Greeks perished on the field of battle; the Persians lost about 6,500, most of whom fell in the marshes fringing the bay while protecting the embarkation of

the rest of the army on board the fleet. This was effected with marvellous rapidity ; seven only of the ships were taken by the Greeks, but the remainder at eventide were sweeping steadily to the south along the coast of Attica. Callimachus the polemarch, and the strategus Stesagoras, fell in the conflict on the shore, and so eager and determined were the Greeks, that many who hung on to the ships as they were being pushed from the shore had their hands cut off by Persian axes.

As the Persian fleet slowly coasted southward, a council of war was held by the nine strategi who had survived the battle to decide on the steps that should next be taken, when it occurred to Miltiades that, by hugging the coast of Attica instead of standing out to sea, the Persian generals were meditating a sudden descent on Athens. Leaving Aristides with about 2,000 men to watch over the unburied dead and Persian spoils, with which the battle-field was strewn. Miltiades marched back in haste to Athens with the rest of the troops, and arrived on the hills overhanging the city in time to see the Persian fleet approaching the harbour. They were too late, as they knew, when they saw that Miltiades had been fully alive to their plans, and had reached Athens in time to receive them, and sullenly turning the prows of their ships, they returned to Asia Minor to send the news of a second failure, even more disastrous and disgraceful than the first to Darius.

The fate of Hippias is uncertain, but he died soon after the battle of Marathon in one of the Greek cities of Asia Minor, if he did not perish, as some assert, on the field fighting against his native country. The Spartans arrived the day after the battle, in time to see the field before the bodies of the slain had been buried, and, perhaps, to assist in the entombment of the Greeks, who were buried on the plains of Marathon, and over whose bodies a huge mound was raised in commemoration of their gallantry and the victory.

A monument was also subsequently erected at Marathon in honour of Miltiades, whose end forms a sad sequel to the glory of the battle he had won for his country. Soon after his return to Athens he asked for a fleet and troops for an expedition, which he proposed to take, but which he did not name. He then sailed for Paros, and made an attack on it for having furnished a contingent to the fleet gathered among the Greek cities by Darius for the invasion of Greece. At least, this was his excuse ; but it is believed that he did it to

revenge himself on a Parian who, years before, had accused him to the Persians of disaffection towards them. He was repulsed and wounded in his attempt to take the island, and returned to Athens. There the people, who had supposed he was gone to fight the Persians on their own soil, raised a clamour against him, and he was tried for deception, and sentenced to pay a fine of fifty talents. Being unable to do this, he was imprisoned and died a prisoner soon after from the effects of his wound. The fine was subsequently paid by his son Cimon, while his corpse was buried by the fickle Athenians where he had won imperishable fame.

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B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Persians defeated by the Athenians and Platæans at Marathon B.C. 490	Expedition against Pa- ros : failure, trial, and death of Miltiades ... B.C. 489
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### 3. WAR WITH ÆGINA.—RIVALRY OF ARISTIDES AND THEMISTOCLES.—THE SECOND PERSIAN INVASION.

Freed for awhile from the immediate fear of invasion by Persia, the Athenians became disunited among themselves, and were divided in opinion whether adherence should be preserved to the policy which had hitherto been maintained, or whether a more ambitious course of action should be taken by the government in adopting measures to increase the influence of Athens at home and abroad, and raise her to the position of a great maritime state. The latter plan found a warm advocate, nay, was suggested by Themistocles, while the former was supported by Aristides, who feared, and feared with justice, as it proved, that an increase in empire and power might tend to the disadvantage of Athens. There was a great difference in the respective characters of these two great men, each of whom undoubtedly had the welfare of his country at heart.

The one was just, high-principled, and unselfish ; the other was singularly talented, seeming to grasp by intuition the course of action that affairs demanded, and to act according to the expediency of the moment, rather than according to the dictates of strict right and justice. The one wished to see his country honoured and respected ; the other sought to see her feared and powerful, and sought by the extension of her power to administer to his own ambition. Aristides had

been taught to prefer honour to pleasure ; the interest of his country to his personal safety and reputation ; and the dictates of justice and humanity to every other consideration. Pure and upright in his intentions, he was not solicitous to obtain the external rewards of virtuous exertions. On the other hand, Themistocles was inflamed with ambitious designs, and desirous of performing great and martial achievements. Eloquent, active, and enterprising, he had strengthened his natural endowments by the acquisition of science. Glory, however, was the idol of his heart, the divinity to which he paid unceasing homage.

Up to the time of the recent Persian invasion Sparta had been supreme among the Greek states ; but by the gallant conduct of her people at Marathon Athens had raised herself on a level with her rival. It was not long after this memorable battle that war broke out between Athens and Ægina, provoked, doubtless, by the taunts levelled by the Athenians at the Æginetans for their submission to Persia some years before, which led to the first war between them and the comparison which was drawn between their conduct on this occasion and that of the Athenians, who saved the whole of Greece by their devoted courage in meeting the Persians almost single-handed at Marathon. It is probable that Aristides spoke manfully against the Æginetan war, while Themistocles hailed it as the means of teaching the Athenians the necessity of providing themselves with a powerful fleet to defend Athens and the coast, to crush Ægina, and to extend their power abroad.

Be this as it may, Aristides, called the Just, fell into disfavour with his countrymen, and being ostracised, retired into exile at Ægina, while Themistocles completely gained their ear, and persuaded them to do pretty much as he desired in all things. So successful was he in moulding the Athenians to his wishes, that a powerful fleet of 200 triremes was built and equipped, the funds necessary for the purpose being found, at his suggestion, in the surplus arising from the silver mines of Laurium, near Cape Sunium, which belonged to the state. Provision was also made for the addition of twenty ships yearly to the Athenian navy, to make good any losses occurring by war or accident. The war with Ægina, like the former struggle, was not marked by any

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B.C.

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B.C.

481

B.C.

event of importance ; but it had its advantages, as it led the Athenians, by the construction of their fleet, to place themselves in a better condition to cope with the power of Persia when another invasion of Greece was attempted.

Darius was now dead, and his son, Xerxes, had been sitting on the throne of Persia since 485 B.C. The new invasion of Greece which Darius had contemplated and prepared for immediately after Marathon had been postponed, in consequence of a rebellion in Egypt, which broke out in 485 B.C., and was not suppressed till 483 B.C. Then, and not till then, did Xerxes feel in a position to carry out his father's purpose, which he had enjoined on him with his last breath. Vast preparations were made for the expedition. Late in 481 the Persian monarch arrived at Sardis, the head-quarters of the army, and to facilitate the passage of the troops and fleet from Asia to Europe, a broad bridge of boats was thrown across the Hellespont, and a canal cut across the narrow neck of land that connects Mount Athos with the mainland. A fleet of 1207 ships was collected in all the parts of Asia and Europe subject to Persia to follow the army round the coast, while it made its way through Asia Minor, Thrace, and Macedon into Greece.

In the winter of 481 B.C., when his preparations were all but completed, the Persian king sent messengers to demand earth and water from the several Grecian states, with the exception of Athens and Sparta, whose intended destruction was thus foreshadowed.

On the approach of the threatened danger a great Panhellenic council, consisting of deputies from all the states, was summoned at Corinth, and the first care of the delegates was to calm down all existing animosities, and to unite together to oppose the common foe. Their work proved fruitless in a great measure, for Athens and Phocis of the northern states, with the gallant Plateans, and men of Thespiæ and Sparta, and the states of the Peloponnesus, Argolis excepted, were alone found willing to fight.

All the leading men of the states that had resolved to enter on the contest were unremitting in their zeal, but the Lacedæmonians principally distinguished themselves ; and Eurybiades, their admiral, was appointed commander-in-chief.

In the spring of the following year, when Athens and Sparta and the confederate states were still busied in pre-



paration for the coming strife, Xerxes quitted Sardis, and set out for Greece. The number of men in his army and fleet, including men of all arms and sailors, amounted, it is said, to more than 2,600,000 men, and that his whole force, if camp-followers and non-combatants were reckoned, actually reached an aggregate of more than 5,000,000. The Persian troops were reviewed and measured by the king and his generals in the great plain at the mouth of the Thracian river Hebrus, in an enclosed space like beans in a bushel, as their multitude rendered it impossible to count them. The council of the Greek states sitting at Corinth determined to attempt to stop their progress before they could reach the borders of Greece, and sent the fleet under Eurybiades to Artemisium on the north coast of Eubœa, on the Maliac Gulf, to give battle to the Persian ships at the entrance to the strait that divides Eubœa from the mainland; while Leonidas, the Eurysthenid king of Sparta, with 300 Spartans and about 2800 men from other parts of the Peloponnesus, occupied the post of Thermopylæ, between Mount Æta and the sea on the southern confines of Thessaly, to bar the way against the passage of the army. There he was joined by contingents from Thebes and Thespiæ, 1000 Phocians, and the whole fighting force of the Locrians of Opus, whom he had summoned to his assistance.

There is not a doubt that Leonidas would have held the pass, if he had not been foiled by treachery, until fresh levies arrived from the south to enable him to attack the Persians. He drove back the troops that were launched against his position, much to the disgust of Xerxes, who trembled on his throne as he sat a witness of their repulse. There was, however, another pass over Mount Æta, of which Leonidas knew nothing until he had arrived at Thermopylæ, and which he entrusted to the guardianship of the men of Phocis. This path was discovered to Xerxes by a native of the country, and a large force of Persians, who were sent to attempt its passage, overcame the Phocians, and took Leonidas and his devoted troops in the rear. Unwilling to sacrifice any but himself and the Spartans under his command, he ordered the allies to retreat and leave him to his fate. All obeyed except the Thespians and Thebans, 1100 in all, who remained with him, and when the retreat of the allies had been secured, Leonidas and his men advanced against the Persians, who surged round the foot of the pass like an angry sea. A bloody

conflict ensued, in which none escaped with life of the gallant Greeks except the Thebans, who surrendered, preferring slavery to loss of life. A more noble stand against overwhelming numbers was never made in the world's history, nor a more useless sacrifice of human life. Leonidas, however, was a Spartan, and as to have drawn off his men would have been considered an indelible disgrace, no other resource was open to him but to fight to the bitter end.

The fleet under Eurybiades was more fortunate. A third part of the Persian triremes was destroyed in a great storm before it reached the mouth of the Maliaç Gulf, and in the encounters that ensued off Artemisium, the Greek sailors found they could hold their own against the invaders, although they did not gain any decided advantage. The Persians sent a detachment of 200 ships outside Eubœa to take the Greek fleet in the rear, by sailing up the channel of the Euripus; but these also were destroyed by a storm. Eurybiades and the leaders of the allies having heard of the destruction of Leonidas and his followers at Thermopylæ, knew that it would be useless to maintain their position off Artemisium any longer, and threading the channel of the Euripus, they returned to Attica, and took up a position in the bay of Salamis.

The Persian army pressed steadily on towards Athens; its progress was but slow, on account of its numbers; and as the oracle had seemed to point out to the Athenians that they would find safety in their fleet alone, having declared that they could be saved only by wooden walls, they abandoned the city and surrounding country by the advice of Themistocles, and went on board their ships. The old men, the sick, the women and the children were placed in comparative safety in Salamis and Ægina, and none but a few of the poorest of the people remained in the deserted city, and they sought a refuge in the Acropolis. The Spartans and men from the other Peloponnesian states set about making a rampart and ditch across the isthmus, to hinder the Persians from entering the peninsula, if it were possible.

But few days elapsed before Xerxes entered Attica. He had sacked and burnt Thespiæ, Plataea, and many of the towns of Northern Greece on his march, and Athens and its Acropolis shared the same fate. He then determined to attack the Greek fleet, which lay within the Bay of Salamis, hoping

to gain an easy victory, but the Athenians and their allies were prepared, and determined to resist to the death, and all the sons of Athens, even including Aristides, who had been recalled from Ægina by the advice of Themistocles, were ready to fight to the last for their country and the national honour. The Greek fleet numbered 366 ships, of which 200 came from Athens, sixteen from Sparta, forty from Corinth, thirty from Ægina, twenty from Megaris, and the rest from other states of Greece and the Greek colonies in Italy. The brave Platæans were on board the triremes of the Athenians. The Persian fleet, which blockaded the southern entrance to the bay, or rather strait of Salamis, was said to number 1200, but probably was much less, as there had not been time to supply all losses caused by the storms from the different ports of Asia Minor.

Time wore on, and the Spartans and Corinthians were with difficulty induced to remain with the fleet. At last, fearing lest they should withdraw to protect their own territories, and seeing that the Persians hesitated to attack, Themistocles sent a messenger to Xerxes to say that the Greeks were differing among themselves, and thinking of seeking safety in flight. This had the effect, as he desired, of bringing on an immediate battle, for the Persian admirals immediately entered the strait and ranged their ships in battle order opposite to those of the Greeks. When the morning came, for the Persians had taken up their position under cover of the night, the Greeks discovered their adversaries ready for action. Both lines advanced, but the Greeks hesitated for a moment, until a single ship dashed to the front, and grappled with a Phœnician trireme. The action soon became general, and in a brief space of time the Persians were hopelessly beaten in the sight of Xerxes, who sat enthroned on the seaside watching the combat. Of the Persian fleet, many vessels were captured, and about 200 destroyed. The Greeks lost only forty ships.

Fearing that the Persians, having still more ships than the Greeks at their disposal, might be induced to make another attack, Themistocles sought to inspire Xerxes with a fear that his retreat into Asia Minor might be cut off, and persuaded him that the Greeks intended to break down the bridge of boats across the Hellespont. Upon this the Persian king sent off the remnant of his fleet to protect the bridges, and marched northwards from Attica to pass the winter in Thessaly. This,

however, he did not do, but, by the advice of Mardonius, returned immediately with the bulk of his army to Sardis, leaving that general with 300,000 picked men to prosecute the war in Greece in the coming spring. Xerxes was more than six weeks in reaching the Hellespont, and there he found that the bridges had been carried away by a storm, and was compelled to carry his troops over in ships.

The Greeks took an early opportunity of celebrating the glorious victory of Salamis, and being assembled in the temple of Neptune, on the Isthmus of Corinth, in order to confer the customary honours on him who, by the free votes of their leaders, had deserved best for military skill and wisdom, each chief was directed to write the name of the man he supposed most worthy, and also of him whom he thought deserving of the second reward. Each commander put his own name in the first place, and that of Themistocles in the second, which sufficiently evinced the superior worth and conduct of the Athenian admiral. Subsequently, when Themistocles visited Sparta, the Spartans, after having decreed a prize of a crown of wild olive for valour to Eurybiades, gave a chariot to Themistocles, and also crowned him with a wreath of olive for bravery.

As soon as the spring was sufficiently advanced to admit of the commencement of military operations, Mardonius marched into Northern Greece, and thence into Attica, where the Athenians were busily employed in rebuilding their city. As soon as he advanced, the Athenians proposed to send an army into Boeotia to resist him, but the Spartans and inhabitants of the Peloponnesian states chose rather to fortify the isthmus, and the Athenians, unable to check his march unaided, once more abandoned Athens and retired to Salamis. Mardonius did no injury to the city, but after ravaging the country retreated and placed his troops in a large entrenched camp, not far from Platæa. There the Greeks resolved to attack him, and advanced against him with an army of about 39,000 heavy-armed men from Athens, Sparta, Corinth, and most of the other Greek states, with about 35,000 Helots from Sparta, and the same number of light-armed troops. The commander-in-chief of the whole army was Pausanias of Sparta.

The Greeks took up a position on the northern slopes of the ridge of Mount Cithæron, near the peak called Erythræ,

where the Persian cavalry attacked them, only to be repulsed with the loss of many men, including their commander, Masistius. Emboldened by this success, Pausanias marched his troops into the plain, and occupied fresh ground on the south bank of the *Æsopus*, directly fronting the Persian army; but subsequently he fell back on Plataea, whither he was immediately followed by the Persians. A furious conflict ensued, in which Mardonius was slain and the Persian troops almost cut to pieces. The Greeks lost about 160 men, of whom the greater number were Spartans. Of the 300,000 men who had been left by Xerxes under Mardonius, not 50,000 remained alive after the slaughter that followed the capture of the entrenched camp, and of these about 40,000, under Artabazus, had turned and commenced their march to Asia before the battle was over. The Athenians, Spartans, and their allies then punished the states and cities of Northern Greece which had taken part with the Persians through fear and want of spirit, and declared Plataea to be a free city, secure from Theban ascendancy, and that the territory surrounding it should be deemed sacred and inviolable.

On the very day that the battle of Plataea was fought, another victory equally important was gained by the Greeks over the Persians at Mycale, near Miletus, on the coast of Asia Minor. The Greek states in the spring of the year had sent a combined fleet under the Spartan king, Leotychides, across the *Ægean* Sea, to induce the islands and Greek cities under the dominion of Persia to revolt. On their approach the Persian fleet retired to Mycale, near which was an army for the protection of Ionia, and fearing to meet the Greeks on the water, the Persians disembarked and joined the ranks of their countrymen. The Greeks landed to attack them, and went into the fight with all the more certainty of success, because a rumour had run through the ranks that their brethren were at that moment victorious over Mardonius at Plataea, as it really was. The Persians were forced back into their entrenched camp, which was immediately stormed and carried, and the victory was rendered still more complete by the burning of the Persian ships, which lay high and dry on the beach. Thus the battles of Plataea and Mycale liberated Greece, put an end to all fear of future Persian invasions, and set the Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor and in the islands which had so long been under the dominion of Persia, in open revolt.

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## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

War between Athens and Ægina.....	B.C. 487	Slaughter of Leonidas and his troops at Thermopylæ .....	B.C. 480
Banishment of Aristides the Just by the Athenians .....	„ 483	Athens taken and burnt by Xerxes .....	„ 480
The Greek states begin to make common cause against Sparta .....	„ 482	The Greeks victorious in the sea-fight off Salamis .....	„ 480
The Athenian navy built by advice of Themistocles .....	„ 481	Athens re-occupied by Mardonius .....	„ 479
Drawn battles between the Persian and Greek fleets at Artemisium ..	„ 480	Battles of Plataea and Mycale: the Greeks victorious over the Persians in both .....	„ 479

#### 4. REBUILDING OF ATHENS.—CIMON.—BATTLES OF THE EURYMEDON.

The first thing to be considered after the revolt of the Ionian cities in Asia Minor, was the safety of these towns and their inhabitants. The Spartans proposed to transfer them to Greece, but the Athenians refused to allow this, taking their protection on themselves. As the Athenians were an Ionian people, like those to whom they became protectors, the Spartans could say nothing against the proposal, and thus Athens gained the ascendancy over the Greek cities of Asia Minor, a step which would tend greatly to increase and secure her maritime supremacy in Greece. When this was settled, the Greek fleet sailed to the Thracian Chersonese to recover it from the Persians, an achievement which was completed, after some fighting of no great importance, by the storming and capture of Sestos.

The attention of the Athenians was now wholly directed to the rebuilding of Athens. The city rapidly rose from its ashes, and soon regained its former splendour, and the citizens brought back their families, which, during the troubles, had been dispersed among the neighbouring states and islands. By the address of Themistocles, and contrary to the wishes of the Spartans, who wished to make the Isthmus of Corinth the chief bulwark of peninsular Greece, Athens was fortified with strong walls, and safe harbours, sufficiently capacious to contain a large fleet, were formed at the Piræus and Munychia. Themistocles further intended, in course of time, to fortify,

these harbours and that of Phalerum, on the east side of the bay of that name, and to connect them with the city by long walls. His ideas were subsequently carried out by Pericles, and in the meantime Themistocles, by putting off consideration of the question with the Spartans by various excuses, turned his whole attention to constructing the fortifications of the city, which were completed almost before the Spartans knew they were begun.

But although the Athenians were busily engaged in repairing damages at home, they, in common with the other Greeks, resolved at the same time to prosecute the war against the Persians in Asia Minor. A large fleet, under the Spartan Pausanias, was sent into Asiatic waters, which freed most of the cities on the coast from Byzantium southwards, and many of the cities of Cyprus. He was not liked as a leader by those who served under him, and when he was recalled to Sparta to hand the Spartan section of the fleet to his successor, who, of course, expected to receive the command-in-chief of the entire fleet, the supreme authority was transferred by the representatives of the allied states that furnished contingents to the fleet to Cimon and Aristides. This led to the supremacy of Athens in the national affairs of Greece, or rather to the immediate supremacy of Athens among the maritime states, which readily accepted her as a leader, while the states which had no navy of importance sided with Sparta, who withdrew her contingent from the fleet that was prosecuting the Persian war. On receiving the command of the fleet, in conjunction with Cimon, Aristides' first care was to organize the confederacy of Delos, which was a league including all the maritime states of Greece. Each state was bound, according to its size and importance, to contribute a certain number of ships and a certain amount of money to a common fund for the continuance of the war with Persia. The league received its name from the island which was selected as its treasury, the place of meeting of the delegates of the states and the general rendezvous of the fleet.

Few records remain of the operations of the war that was carried on by the Greek states against Persia with incessant activity for ten years, from 476 B.C. to 466 B.C. All that can be said is that Thrace was completely recovered from the Persians, who were dislodged from the cities that they still held in Mysia and Caria. The final blow was given, for a

time at least, to Persian supremacy in Asia Minor, or on the west coast of Asia Minor, by the battles of the  
**466** Eurymedon. These were won by Cimon, the son of  
B.C. Miltiades, who, with a powerful fleet of 300 vessels, completely destroyed a Persian fleet, which had been collected at the mouth of the river, and then, landing his troops, totally defeated a Persian army on the shore, which had been witnesses of his first victory.

It is now necessary to advert briefly to a few events that had taken place in Greece during the prosecution of this aggressive war against Persia, and which relate for the most part to the men who assumed the lead in Athens and Sparta during this time. Pausanias, the victor of Platæa, came to an evil end. His pride and haughty bearing towards the generals associated with him had led to the decline of the influence of Sparta among the maritime states, and the transfer of the supreme command to Athens. His removal from his command aroused a discontented spirit within him, and he entered into a correspondence with Xerxes, offering to betray his country to the Persian king provided that he received the hand of a Persian princess in marriage, and was made the vassal king of Greece. Xerxes entered into his schemes, and Pausanias, encouraged by this, openly wore the Persian dress, and affected Persian manners. At last his treachery was discovered, and he took refuge from the officers who were sent to arrest him in a temple of Minerva. To have dragged him from the sacred precincts of Minerva's shrine would have been sacrilege, so the door was blocked up with stones, and the unhappy man died miserably of hunger.

The death of Pausanias took place in 471 B.C., and this year was further marked by a great change in the fortunes of Themistocles. His self-esteem, and display of the wealth that he had amassed, was beginning to render him an object of dislike to his countrymen. He had even fallen into disrepute with the popular and progressive party of which he was the leader, and as the old political animosities had not yet died out in Athens, he was viewed with greater distrust by the nobles and aristocratic party, which had found a leader in Cimon, the son of Miltiades. He was accused of taking bribes in the various offices which were entrusted to him, and he was even suspected of complicity in the treasonable correspondence of Pausanias with Xerxes. The Spar-



tans could not forget how he had imposed on them respecting the fortifications which rendered Athens superior to the other states of Greece, and, in their hatred of him, intrigued against him at Athens with so much success, that he was sent into banishment by ostracism. He retired to Argos, and the Spartans then proposed that he should be tried before the representatives of the states on suspicion of treason against Greece. Orders were given to bring him a prisoner to Athens, but Themistocles having received timely information, fled to the Court of Admetus, king of the Molossi in Epirus, who refused to give him up, and aided him in escaping to Asia. He took refuge with Xerxes, who received him with marked kindness, gave him a Persian lady for a wife, granted him a residence at Magnesia, and the revenues of several cities for his maintenance, besides various privileges which were to be continued to his descendants. He died at Magnesia about 449 B.C., and his remains were afterwards brought to Athens, and honoured with a public funeral. His great political opponent, Aristides, who was one of the most single-hearted men that ever lived, and who refused to join in the popular outcry against Themistocles, and always spoke of him with respect, died a poor, but honoured man, in 468 B.C. He, too, had a public funeral at Phalerum, and his daughters were dowered at the public expense.

The successors of Aristides and Themistocles, as party leaders at Athens, were Cimon, the son of Miltiades, and Pericles, the son of Xanthippus, who had been chiefly instrumental in bringing Miltiades to trial. Of these men Cimon was brave and generous to a fault, but he cared little for art and learning, and was soon wearied of business. He warmly advocated close alliance with Sparta, and was, as it has been said, the leader of the aristocratic party in the state, who, in their desire to confine the management of affairs to as few as possible, would have re-established, if they could, an oligarchical form of government. Pericles, on the other hand, closely connected by birth with the democratic Alcmaeonids, although brave enough, was by no means covetous of military fame: he was honest, resolute, and capable of winning men to his own way of thinking; he loved learning, and was a liberal patron of the arts and sciences. Averse to attempts to extend the empire of Athens abroad, it was the chief care of his life to make her honoured and powerful at home, and

to promote the safety, welfare, and happiness of his fellow-citizens.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Themistocles rebuilds and fortifies Athens, and constructs a harbour at the Piræus, etc. ....	B.C. 478	Themistocles ostracised and compelled to escape to Asia .....	B.C. 471
Athens obtains supremacy among the Maritime States. Formation of the Confederacy of Delos .....	" 477	Cimon expels the Persians from Thrace ...	" 469
Pausanias starved to death at Sparta for treachery. Themis-		Death of Aristides, and his burial at Phalerum.....	"
		Persians defeated on sea and land in the same day by Cimon, at the mouth of the Eurymedon.....	" 466

### CHAPTER VII.

#### STRUGGLES FOR SUPREMACY AMONG THE GREEK STATES.

466 B.C. to 360 B.C.

##### 1. THE POSITION IN GREECE. — THIRD MESSENIAN WAR. — CORONEA. — THE THIRTY YEARS' TRUCE.

THE events which immediately followed the expulsion of the Persians from Greece, led to a division of the Greek states into two parties, as it has been said, one under the direction of Athens, and the other under the leadership of Sparta. The states under Athens were maritime states, possessed of a democratic form of government, and inhabited for the most part by people of Ionian extraction. The states under Sparta were more powerful on land, and oligarchies, broadly speaking, inhabited chiefly by Dorians. The former were members of the Confederacy of Delos: the latter entered into alliance, and formed the Peloponnesian League. Athens used every effort to make her power felt as the head of the Delian Confederacy, and compelled its members to observe their obligations, suppressing a rebellion in Naxos, one of the Cyclades (467 B.C.), and another in Thasos (465 B.C.), which had sought to retire from the League. The siege of Thasos dragged on for two years, and the inhabitants would have

received aid against Athens from the Spartans, to whom they had applied, had not they been just entering on the Third Messenian War (464—455 B.C.), whose cause and result has already been described. The Athenians, by the persuasion of Cimon, even sent a body of troops to aid the Spartans in this war, but their hostility to Athens was so great, that these auxiliaries were desired to return to their own country in 461 B.C. This led to the ostracism of Cimon in the same year.

As soon as this had been brought about, and the chief obstacle to progress in Athens removed, Pericles brought about numerous changes in the constitution which tended to throw the power still more into the hands of the people. Of these changes the principal was the restriction of the powers of the Court of Areopagus and the Senate, and the transference of their judicial functions to ten bodies of 500 men each, called *Dicasteries*, who heard causes, and pronounced their decision somewhat after the manner of an English jury.

While these alterations were in progress, the revolt of Inarus against the Persians took place in Egypt, and the Athenians sent a fleet to his assistance. Although they met with success at first, the revolt was ultimately put down by the Persians, and the Athenian fleet was entirely destroyed (455 B.C.), after maintaining the war for six years. In the following year Athens entered into an alliance with Megara, and soon began to complete the defences of the city by the construction of the "Long Walls," of which one connected Athens with the ports of Piræus and Munychia, while the other linked it to Phalerum. These doings provoked the jealousy of Corinth, Ægina, and Sparta. Corinth made an attack on Megara, but her troops were repulsed with great loss; and Ægina sent a powerful fleet against Athens, which was completely destroyed by the ships of the Athenians, who immediately laid siege to the city. The Spartans—the end of the Messenian war was now approaching—sent troops into Boeotia to prevent Athens from gaining the ascendancy she was seeking to acquire in that country. The Athenians also sent a small force thither immediately, which was defeated at Tanagra. This defeat was valuable, inasmuch as it produced a reconciliation between the oligarchic and democratic

factions in Athens, and the recall of Cimon from exile. His return was immediately followed by the defeat of the Spartans at Ænophyta, which threw the Boeotian cities into the hands of Athens, and relieved them from the domination of Thebes. The democratic form of government was immediately introduced, and to her other success Athens soon after added the capture of Ægina, the destruction of the Spartan harbours of Methone and Gythium, and the occupation of Naupactus, which was immediately settled by Messenians,

455

B.C.

the Messenian war having been brought to an end by the capture of Ithome. The Athenians, however, were not so successful in expeditions against Sicyon and Acarnania, and all parties were glad to secure rest and breathing-time by a truce for five years, which was concluded between Athens and Sparta by the instrumentality of Cimon.

During the interval of peace that Cimon had thus secured, Athens was substituted for Delos as the head-quarters of the Delian Confederacy, and the treasures of the League were conveyed thither. This was the crowning step to the supremacy of Athens among the maritime states. In order to preserve internal tranquillity, Cimon saw that it was necessary to turn the restless spirit of his countrymen towards foreign conquest, and particularly against Persia. An expedition was therefore fitted out against Cyprus, then under the yoke of Persia, and during the siege of Citium Cimon died.

449

B.C.

After a brilliant double victory by land and sea over the Persians, at Salamis, in Cyprus, peace was proposed, and Callias was sent to Susa to conclude the terms. Artaxerxes, who was then king of Persia, then agreed to consider the Greek states of Asia Minor free, and not to send his fleet westward beyond the Chelidonian Islands, near the Sacred Cape in Lycia, on the Cyanean Rocks, at the entrance to the Bosphorus. In return for these concessions, the Athenians agreed to make no further attacks on Egypt and Cyprus.

It has been said that by the battle of Ænophyta, in 456 B.C., the Athenians gained supremacy in Boeotia, and gave democratic constitutions to the Theban cities.

447

B.C.

Nine years after, however, the oligarchists in Boeotia made an attempt to regain power, and defeated the Athenians at Coronea. The evacuation of the country was purchased by the restoration of the Athenian prisoners, but

the Theban cities conceived a hatred towards Athens for the humiliation they had endured, which bore bitter fruit in after-time. The loss of supremacy in Boeotia was followed by a revolt in Euboea, and the secession of Phocis and Locris from alliance with Athens. Megara **445** was given up to the Corinthians, and the Spartans **B.C.** took advantage of the opportunity to invade Athens. Pericles purchased the withdrawal of the Spartan troops, and a truce for thirty years was concluded between the belligerents.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Outbreak of the Third Messenian War through revolt of the Helots.....	B.C. 464	Five Years' Truce between Sparta and Athens procured by Cimon.....	B.C. 455
Athenian auxiliaries sent back from Sparta.—Ostracism of Cimon...	„ 461	Expedition against Cyprus.—Death of Cimon.....	„ 449
Athens assists Egypt in its revolt against Persia .....	„ 460	Double victory gained over Persians at Salamis. — Treaty with Persia arranged by Callias .....	„ 449
Commencement of the "Long Walls." — Athenians defeated by Spartans in Boeotia at the battle of Tanagra.—Recall of Cimon ..	„ 457	Rising in Boeotia. — Athenians defeated at Coronea, lose supremacy in Boeotia .....	„ 447
Athenians victorious at Ænophyta, and gain supremacy in Boeotia. „	„ 456	Invasion of Attica by Spartans. — Conclusion of a Thirty Years' Truce between Spartans and Athenians...	„ 445
End of Messenian war and the war in Egypt ..	„ 455		

## 2. PERICLES.—THE SAMIAN WAR.—THE FIRST PART OF THE PELOPONNESIAN WAR.

The fifteen years that immediately succeeded the conclusion of the Thirty Years' Truce, was a time of prosperity and social progress in Athens. The city was beautified and adorned with magnificent temples and public buildings, adorned with statues and sculpture from the chisel of Phidias and Myron, and paintings by Polygnotus and Panænus, the nephew of Phidias. The fortifications of the city were repaired, strengthened, and extended, the wealth of the citizens and the state was increased, and fresh colonies were founded in different parts, among which were Thurii, in Southern

Italy, in 443 B.C., and Amphipolis, on the Thracian river Strymon, in 437 B.C. It is true that Athens had lost her influence to a considerable extent over the states of the Peloponnesus, that had previously been in alliance with or subjection to her, but her supremacy over the Greek states of Asia Minor, and the islands of the Ægean Sea, was more firmly established than ever, these having become tributaries to her rather than allies. The policy adopted by Pericles was one of peace, and though the oligarchic party in Athens loudly clamoured for war with Persia, Pericles succeeded in convincing the Athenians that as Persia was quiet, it was useless to waste money in attacking her, and succeeded in maintaining tranquillity. Indeed, the only thing that occurred

440

B.C.

to break the profound peace of Greece, was the Samian war. The men of Samos had been punished by Athens for taking Priene from Miletus, in Ionia, by the introduction of democratic institutions, and the establishment of an Athenian garrison in the island. The Samians then broke into revolt, but were eventually subdued after a siege which lasted nine months.

435

B.C.

It has been said that Corinth was frequently at issue with the daughter state Corcyra, and a fresh war broke out between them respecting Epidamnus, a Corcyrean colony, afterwards called by the Romans Dyrrhachium. Corcyra had refused to interfere in a political quarrel at Epidamnus, and go to the assistance of the democratic party within the city, who had expelled the oligarchists, and were besieged by them and some allies they had found in Illyrium. The citizens, therefore, sent to Corinth, who espoused their cause, and assumed possession of the city. This led to war between Corinth and Corcyra, and the former were worsted in a naval battle. The Corcyreans then proposed an alliance with the Athenians, fearing the vengeance of Corinth; and this being arranged, the allied fleets together encountered the Corinthians. The result was a drawn battle. Corinth now sought an ally in Perdiccas, king of Macedonia, and with his assistance sought to excite revolt in the colonies in the peninsula of Chalcidice, between the Strymonic and Thermaic gulfs, which belonged to Athens. One of these, Potidea, had been settled by the Corinthians, and the Athenians took measures to keep the citizens to their allegiance. This, however, only hastened the revolt, and the Polideans

sought aid from the mother city. The Corinthians sent a fleet to their assistance, but the Athenians defeated them, and laid siege to Potidea. Corinth immediately appealed to Sparta for assistance, and the Spartan government declared for war with Athens, unless the Athenians would consent to dissolve the maritime empire that they had constructed since the invasion of Greece by Persia, and return to the position she had occupied among the states of Greece before that event. Such an act would have been political suicide, and Pericles firmly refused to comply, declaring at the same time that Athens had no wish to fight, unless she were forced to do so.

An attempt of the Thebans to take possession of Plataea by the aid of such of her citizens as were in favour of the oligarchical form of government, and the establishment of an Athenian garrison in the city, for its protection, led at last to open war. This internecine strife, which lasted for twenty-seven years, with brief intermissions of hostilities, has been divided into three parts, as follows: First, the contest which lasted from 431 B.C. to 421 B.C., and which was terminated by the conclusion of the Fifty Years' Truce between Athens and Sparta: secondly, the struggle which continued from the rupture of the truce in 418 B.C. to the defeat of the Athenians in Sicily in 413 B.C.: and thirdly, the fight which Athens maintained almost for national existence from 413 B.C. to 404 B.C.

In the first year of the war, the Spartans, under the Proclid king, Archidamus II., ravaged the territory of Athens, and advanced to the very walls of the city, within which all the people of Attica, and their movables, had been collected. Pericles, however, sent out a combined Athenian and Corcyrean fleet, which retaliated on the enemy for the ravages committed in Attica, by burning several towns on the Peloponnesian coast, and by taking some Corinthian colonies on the coast of Acarnania, and occupying the island of Cephallenia. At the retirement of the Spartan troops, who grew weary of waiting before Athens for the Athenians to come out and fight, Pericles ravaged Megara, and divided the island of Ægina among Athenian settlers, after transporting the Ægiæans to Lacedæmonia, where they were permitted to occupy Thyrea. He further strengthened his hands by alliances with the kings of Thrace and Macedonia; and he kept quiet the

citizens shut up within the fortifications of Athens with distributions of money from the public treasury, with a law for the division of the conquered lands, and with funereal honours rendered to the dead.

In the second year a dreadful plague desolated Attica, while the Spartans and their allies ravaged the country.

430

B.C.

Pericles would not allow the Athenians to go out of the city to fight a pitched battle with the invaders, but sailed himself with a fleet round the Peloponnesus, ravaging the coast, and destroying towns and villages, whenever the opportunity offered. The plague, however, raging among the soldiers and seamen, the Athenians lost their courage, and sued for peace; and being refused, deprived Pericles of all his dignities, and condemned him to pay a fine. Nevertheless, with an inconstancy natural to the people, they soon restored him to his post as polemarch, and invested him with almost absolute authority.

In the third year, good and ill success were divided between the contending powers. The Athenians be-

429

B.C.

sieged Potidæa, the inhabitants of which, being reduced to the necessity of eating human flesh, at length surrendered. Pericles, most of whose family and friends had already fallen a victim to the plague, was seized with that disease in the autumn, and died. Some of his friends, during his last moments, supposing him to have lost all knowledge and recollection, recounted the wisdom and incorruption of his administration, and his victories by sea and land. On hearing them, the dying statesman and sage, raising himself on the bed, said, "You forget the best and noblest part of my character; no one of my fellow-citizens was ever compelled, on my account, to wear a mourning robe."

Another memorable event of the year was the siege of Plataea. The inhabitants who were left within the walls to defend it, with a few Athenians, kept up a gallant resistance

428

B.C.

until the summer of the year following, when about half of them cut their way through the besieging forces, and escaped to Athens, while the remainder surrendered, and after a long detention were brought to trial (427 B.C.) and put to death. Before the siege of Plataea was begun, Lesbos withdrew from its alliance with Athens; but the island was promptly reduced to obedience by the Athenians before assistance was afforded to them by the Spartans,



to whom they had applied for aid. The Spartans also in this year sent an embassy to the king of Persia, to ask for help against Athens; but their envoys were arrested in Thrace, and handed over to the Athenians, by whom they were put to death.

After the death of Pericles, the Athenians who became important as party leaders were Nicias and Demosthenes, among the higher classes, and Cleon, the leather-seller, a shrewd, but noisy demagogue, who, with a few others like himself, obtained authority among the lower orders, and exercised an influence which they would never have possessed had peace continued, and matters remained as they were in the early days of Pericles.

The first act of brutal revenge on the part of Cleon was to propose the massacre of all the able-bodied men in Mitylene, the capital of Lesbos, and that all the women and children should be sold as slaves; and it was with difficulty that the project was prevented. A thousand prisoners sent from Mitylene were, at his instigation, put to death at Athens. In Corcyra, the people rose against the nobles, and indulged themselves in a week's indiscriminate massacre of the rich, wealthy, and powerful, in revenge for the death of one of their leaders, and to satisfy their passions against the oligarchists, who disliked the Athenian alliance, and had summoned the Spartans to their aid.

The events which have been already narrated were the principal in the first five years of this fierce and furious war. The sixth was chiefly distinguished by the successful operations of the Athenian general Demosthenes against the allies in Acarnania; and the seventh by the establishment of an Athenian settlement and fortress on the promontory of Pylos, now known as the Cape of Navarino, on the coast of Messenia, opposite to which was the island of Sphacteria. The Spartans occupied the island, and endeavoured to destroy the fort as soon as they heard of the bold step that had been taken by Demosthenes; but the allies were totally defeated by the Athenian triremes in a great sea fight, which took place in the bay of Pylos, and the island was carried before the close of the year, and the surviving soldiers of the Spartan garrison taken prisoners. In the eighth year the Athenians took Cythera, the large island which lies off the south-

426

B.C.

425

B.C.

eastern peninsula of Laconia, but were defeated in Boeotia in the battle of Delium, while their colony of Amphipolis on the Thracian river Strymon was wrested from them by the Spar-

424

B.C.

tan general, Brasidas. In speaking of the Spartans it must not be forgotten that, after the capture of Sphacteria, the Helots, who had rendered important services during the war, were rewarded by the emancipation of about 2000 of their number. Not one of them, however, lived to enjoy their recovered freedom. The new freedmen vanished from among their fellows, and it is most probable that they were disposed of by the action of the *Crypteia*.

In the ninth year a truce for a twelvemonth was concluded

423

B.C.

about the beginning of spring between the chief belligerents, but this did not culminate in a general peace, as was hoped, owing to the clamour that was kept up at Athens by Cleon and his admirers for a continuance of the war. An expedition was accordingly sent in the tenth year under the leather-seller to re-capture Amphipolis,

422

B.C.

but Cleon ran away as soon as the enemy appeared on the walls and prepared for a sally, and was cut down in full flight. Brasidas, the Spartan general, fell in the pursuit. The peace parties in Sparta and Athens now renewed their efforts to put an end to the war, and it was agreed that all places taken by one party or the other during its continuance should be restored, and that all prisoners should be released. This arrangement, however, was not carried out in the case of Plataea, Amphipolis, Pylos, and some other towns; and as the people of Corinth, Elis, Boeotia, and Megaris considered that their interests had not been sufficiently consulted, they withdrew from the alliance with Sparta, and proposed a new Peloponnesian confederacy under Argos. The new league was joined by Corinth, Elis, and Mantinea, and the colonies of Chalcidice, but the states of Megaris and Boeotia refused to enter it. From the period for which the peace between Athens and Sparta was concluded it was called the Fifty Years' Truce.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Attempted separation of  
Samos from Athens :  
subjugation of the  
island..... B.C. 440

War between Corinth  
and Corcyra respect-  
ing the colony of Epi-  
damnus ..... B.C. 435

<p><b>Alliance between Athens and Corcyra : Corinth attacks Chalcidice .....</b> B.C. 433</p> <p><b>Meeting of states at Sparta to take measures against Athens ..</b> 432</p> <p><b>Capture of Plataea attempted by Thebans : outbreak of Peloponnesian War .....</b> „ 431</p> <p><b>Invasion of Attica by the Spartans : Athens takes possession of Ægina .....</b> „ 431</p> <p><b>Second invasion of Attica : the plague in Athens .....</b> „ 430</p> <p><b>Surrender of Potidea to the Athenians : death of Pericles : siege of Plataea .....</b> „ 429</p> <p><b>Surrender of Plataea to</b></p>	<p><b>Spartans and Thebans : revolt of Mitylene from Athens and its subjugation : massacre at Corcyra B.C. 428</b></p> <p><b>Athenian garrison established at Pylos in Messenia .....</b> „ 425</p> <p><b>Athens takes Cythera, but her troops are defeated at Delium, and Brasidas takes Amphipolis .....</b> „ 424</p> <p><b>Conclusion of a year's truce between Athens and Sparta .....</b> „ 423</p> <p><b>Abortive attempt of Cleon to recover Amphipolis : death of Cleon and Brasidas... ..</b> „ 422</p> <p><b>The Fifty Years' Truce negotiated by Athenian statesman Nicias ..</b> 421</p>
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### 3. ALCIBIADES.—SECOND STAGE OF PELOPONNESIAN WAR.— PROCEEDINGS IN SICILY.

In the three years that elapsed between the conclusion of the truce and the renewal of hostilities, Alcibiades acted a considerable part on the political stage. He was the son of Clinias, who claimed to be a descendant of Æacus, and the ward and the nephew of Pericles. He was remarkably handsome, richer than most of the Athenian nobles, learned, eloquent, indefatigable, magnificent, affable, and courteous ; but when he acted without restraint, he was indolent, luxurious, dissolute, intemperate, and irreligious. In fine, he surpassed all his fellow-citizens in his vices, as well as in his good qualities. When the Spartans sent ambassadors to Athens, to seek the restoration of Pylos, and to treat respecting other matters, these ministers applied to Nicias, who introduced them into the senate, where they declared 420  
that they were vested with full power to adjust all B.C.  
differences. When they retired from the senate, Alcibiades invited them to his house, and, expostulating with them on their attaching themselves to Nicias, advised them to deny in the general assembly of the people that they were vested with full powers, lest the Athenians should be induced to

extort unreasonable compliances. On the following day, when the ambassadors came into the forum, Alcibiades asked them whether they had full powers; and on their answering in the negative, "You see, my countrymen," said he, "what credit is due to these Lacedæmonians, who deny to you to-day what they solemnly affirmed to the senate yesterday!" Upon which the people refused to hear the Lacedæmonians, and dismissed them. Shortly after, a treaty was concluded with Argos, and the other confederate states of the recently-formed Peloponnesian League.

The proceedings of the states of Greece at this period throw a curious light on the manner in which truces were regarded by the Greeks. As long as the contracting parties to a peace for any definite time did not come into open collision, it seems that either was at liberty to assist its allies against whom the other might be at war. Thus, when Sparta invaded Argos,

**418** the Athenians came to its aid, as well as the other  
**B.C.** states of the confederacy, and the allied troops suffered defeat at the battle of Mantinea, but the truce

between Athens and Sparta was still considered to be in existence. Argos, however, was like a house divided against itself, and unfit to take the lead in any league. Soon after the battle of Mantinea the Argives declared in favour of Sparta, abolished the democratic, and established an oligarchical form of government. But growing weary of the latter, they

**417** expelled the Spartans, banished the oligarchists,  
**B.C.** and recalled the Athenians, who sent Alcibiades to support the democracy, and procure the banishment of those who favoured the Lacedæmonians. Many of the inhabitants of the island of Melos were punished cruelly for their attachment to Sparta. Being of Dorian extraction, they naturally entertained a good feeling towards Sparta, and were ultimately led to withdraw from their alliance with Athens. The island was reduced after a rigid blockade of several

**416** months, during which the truce operated against  
**B.C.** the Spartans sending aid to the inhabitants, because Melos had long been regarded as subject to Athens.

In the seventeenth year of the war the Athenians and Lacedæmonians made Sicily the scene of warfare.

**415** The Athenians sent a fleet to the assistance of the  
**B.C.** inhabitants of Egesta, who were engaged in a war with the Syracusans. The inhabitants of Syracuse were

Dorian in descent, and the Athenians were led to assist the Egeetans on the representation that, if the Dorian race got the upper hand in Sicily, they would be sure to aid their blood relations at home against Athens. Nicias was appointed commander in this expedition, and Alcibiades and Lamachus were his colleagues. But while the necessary preparations were making, all the statues of Mercury, used as marks for boundaries of districts, &c., milestones, and many other purposes, were defaced in one night. Suspicion fell on Alcibiades, and, although he was allowed to sail with the expedition, and had offered to take his trial before leaving, to clear himself from this and other imputations which had been cast on his character, his colleagues, after they arrived in Sicily, were ordered to send him to Athens under a strong guard. Alcibiades, however, escaped to Lacedæmon; and by conforming to the Spartan manners, and divulging the plans of the Athenians, he gained the confidence of the Lacedæmonians.

The next year the Lacedæmonians, by the advice of Alcibiades, seized and fortified Declea, which was situated on Mount Parnes, at an equal distance from Athens and the frontiers of Boeotia, and formed a post whence the Spartans could descend on Attica at pleasure. During the year the Spartans also sent a few ships to the assistance of Syracuse, which was blockaded by the Athenians. Gylippus, who was in command of the expedition, landed at Himera, and having thrown himself with a few thousand men that he raised in Sicily into Syracuse, called on the Athenians to raise the siege. On their refusal he attacked them with vigour, defeated their fleet, broke up the blockade, and obliged Nicias to send home for more ships and fresh troops.

414  
B.C.

In the nineteenth year of the war the Spartans openly broke the truce which had been so frequently violated, and subjected Attica to a fresh invasion, and the city of Athens being invested by land, the citizens were subjected to considerable inconvenience. Notwithstanding this, a fresh expedition was fitted out against Syracuse under Demosthenes. He found Nicias and the troops and fleet under him reduced to the greatest straits, having been defeated in a naval engagement, and their camp closely invested by the Syracusans and their allies. The re-

413  
B.C.

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414  
B.C.

413  
B.C.

The ten admirals gained a great victory over the admiral, Callicratidas, who had superseded the island group of Arginusæ, near Lesbos, seventy-seven ships, while twenty-five

406

B.C.

remes were destroyed, and many were contained. Theramenes, one of the admirals, accused his colleagues of having saved the dying, or pay the last rites to the dead admirals, therefore, were tried, condemned to death for this crime.

Immediately after this reverse, the Spartan Lysander in his command, and this expedition against the Athenian fleet, directed his course

405

B.C.

and took Lampsacus. The Athenians were soon after, and Lysander, aware of this, attacked them, and gained a most complete victory recorded in history. Of 180 vessels, not a score remained to the Athenians, a disaster to Athens, and all the prisoners of the wrecks were put to death. Lysander then sailed to the cities which had been under the Athenian empire, Athens by sea, whilst Agis besieged it by land. For months the Athenians defended themselves bravely, without even demanding a peace. At last, pressed by famine, they were obliged to surrender on severe conditions: namely, that the fortifications of the Piræus should be destroyed.



## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Revolt of Chios. Sparta obtains support from the Persian Satraps of Asia Minor .....	B.C. 412	Athenians defeated by Lysander off Notium. Banishment of Alcibiades .....	B.C. 407
Alcibiades leaves Sparta, and makes overtures for return to Athens ..	412	Defeat of Spartan fleet off Arginusæ .....	406
• Revolution at Athens. Government of the "Four Hundred" ...	411	Capture of Lampsacus by Lysander, and defeat of Athenian fleet in the naval battle of Ægospotami .....	405
Counter revolution. Recall of Alcibiades .....	410	Siege of Athens by Lysander and Agis: its surrender, and end of the Peloponnesian war .....	404
Spartans under Mindarus, and Persians under Pharnabazus, defeated by Alcibiades at Cynos .....	410		

### 5. THE THIRTY TYRANTS.—SOCRATES.—THE CORINTHIAN WAR.—PEACE OF ANTALCIDAS.

As soon as Lysander had demolished the Long Walls and the fortifications of the Piræus, he withdrew to Sparta, leaving a garrison in the Acropolis. Before he quitted the city he lent his aid to the oligarchical party, and the exiles of this faction who had returned from banishment, in fashioning a government after their own heart; and these men constituted a council of thirty, who are designated in history **404**  
under the title of the Thirty Tyrants. Instead of **B.C.**  
making laws, they governed without them, appointed a senate and magistrates at their will, and kept the Athenians in awe by the Spartan garrison. At the head of the Thirty were Critias and Theramenes, men who had but recently returned from exile, and who were perhaps the most able, but the most unscrupulous politicians in Athens. The former was ambitious and cruel in the extreme; but the latter was of a milder disposition, and averse to sanguinary measures. Theramenes endeavoured to oppose the cruelties of the tyrants; and Critias, therefore, accusing him as a betrayer of the public cause, he was hurried to the place of execution, and compelled to drink hemlock.

The death of Theramenes removed the last curb to the ferocity of the Thirty, whose cruelty obliged great numbers to flee from Athens. Thrasybulus collected a few of these unfortunate fugitives at Thebes, who were resolved to encounter every

danger rather than live thus exiled from their native country. By the aid of the Boeotians, who, as it has been said, had become disaffected towards Sparta, he first secured the citadel of Phyle, on Mount Parnes, in Attica, and then made himself master of the Piræus in spite of the efforts of Critias and the Spartan garrison of the Acropolis to prevent him. Critias fell in another attempt to dislodge him from the Piræus, and a third party in the city, who were averse to democracy, but not disposed to sanction any extreme proceedings on the part of the nobles, exhibited the tyranny of the Thirty in such odious colours, that the people expelled them, and confided the government to a new council of Ten. The deposed tyrants fled to Eleusis, and sent thence to the Spartans, asking them to effect their restoration. The Ten also appealed to the Spartans, to send troops to restore order in the city. A body of men, and a numerous fleet, were accordingly sent to Athens under the Eurysthenid king, Pausanias, who defeated Thrasybulus. His defeat, however, did not weaken his influence among his supporters, and he was mainly instrumental in concluding a peace with the Spartans, which provided for the recall of the garrison left in Athens, the restoration of the democratic form of government, and an act of general amnesty. The tyrants, during their short reign of about eight months, had put to death fourteen hundred citizens, and driven into banishment five thousand. It is also supposed that they had a considerable share in procuring the assassination of Alcibiades.

The year of the overthrow of the Thirty Tyrants, and the restoration of the democratic form of government, was also memorable for the introduction of the Ionic alphabet, in which all the Greek works which have come down to us are written for public purposes as well as private use.

The long wars had rendered the Greeks restless, and unwilling for the arts and toils of peace. Sparta turned her arms against Elis, and a large body of Athenians and Greeks from all parts of Greece, marched with Cyrus, the Persian, when he attempted to drive his brother Artaxerxes, from the throne. Cyrus fell at Cunaxa.

400 The return of his Greek auxiliaries, known in history as the "Retreat of the Ten Thousand," has been well told by the historian Xenophon, one of the leaders of the Greek mercenaries in the pay of Cyrus, who was chiefly instrumental in bringing them safely home.

Soon after the popular form of government was re-established in Athens, Socrates, the master and the friend of Alcibiades, was condemned and put to death. Brave in war, of a mild and easy conversation, and equally esteemed for wisdom and integrity, he could not but displease the Thirty; who first endeavoured to render his manners and his doctrine suspected: they then attempted to disgrace him by forcing him to concur in their tyranny, or be guilty of an act of disobedience. Every kind of persecution was practised against him. In the theatre he was decried and vilified; and Aristophanes, the great comic poet and dramatist of Athens, who had done good service by his ridicule of Cleon and the demagogues, introduced him on the stage, teaching sophisms by which a bad cause might be rendered good, preaching new gods, and ridiculing whatever was held sacred. At length he was formally accused of not acknowledging the gods of Greece, and, though he pleaded his cause in the most forcible manner, he was condemned to suffer death by drinking hemlock. He had reached the age of seventy when he died.

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B.C.

The reign—if it may be called reign—of the Proclid king, Agis II., which was brought to a close in 399 B.C., had been a glorious period for Sparta. Just at this period a struggle was commencing between Persia and Sparta, who, after the fall of Athens, had assumed the protectorate of the Greek cities on the coast of Asia Minor. The participation of the Greeks in the expedition of Cyrus, caused the Persian king, Artaxerxes, to renew his attacks on Ionia, and the Spartan troops which had been sent to their assistance under Deocylidas had gained some marked successes over the satraps Pharnabazus and Tissaphernes. On the death of Agis, Ly-sander assisted in placing on the throne Agis II., the younger son of the deceased king, instead of Leotychides, the elder, who was supposed to have been illegitimate. This prince, though ambitious and brave, was mild and amiable, and combined valour with goodness; and his patriotism was such that he preferred the interests of his country to his own personal safety and tranquillity.

Conon, who had not ventured to return to Athens after the disastrous battle of Ægospotami, was entrusted by the satrap Pharnabazus with the command of a large fleet, which he had raised for the prosecution of the war with the Asiatic

Greeks; and on this, Lysander persuaded Agesilaus II. to take the command of the Spartan troops in Asia Minor. He failed at first in an attack on the Phrygian city Dascylium, the seat of Pharnabazus' government, but in the following year carried everything before him in Lydia, and was about to attack Sardis, when the successor of Tissaphernes, who had recently died, induced him to agree to a short truce. He spent the winter in preparing for a renewal of the war, and was on the point of commencing operations in the ensuing spring, when the outbreak of the Corinthian war obliged him to return home.

It happened that a quarrel had occurred between the Phocians and the Locrians of Opus, in which the Thebans had lent assistance to the former. The Locrians sought aid at Sparta, and the Spartans, under Lysander, invaded Boeotia. The war soon assumed formidable proportions, for, in consequence of a victory obtained over the Spartans, before the town of Haliartus, Athens, Corinth, Argos, Acarnania, and many other states and Greek colonies, who had a grudge against Sparta, sided with Thebes, and flew to arms.

**394** The Spartans, under the Eurysthenid king, Pausanias, marched against the allies, and defeated them before Corinth, which was selected as the place of meeting of the representatives of the states. At this time Agesilaus was on his way home, through Thrace and Macedonia. The allies prepared to dispute his march southward, and met him at Coronea. A hard-fought battle took place, in which Agesilaus gained the advantage, for he can scarcely be said to have gained a decisive victory. The successes of the Spartans at Corinth and Coronea were more than counterbalanced by the utter defeat of the Lacedæmonian fleet under Pisander, the brother-in-law of Agesilaus, by the combined Greek and Persian fleet, commanded by the Athenian admiral Conon. This battle took place off Cnidus, in Caria, about a fortnight before the engagement at Coronea, and was followed by the attack and capture of most of the cities and islands that had been taken by Sparta in the Ægean Sea and Hellespont, and the island of Cythera.

The brilliant victory gained by Conon at Cnidus completely effaced the disaster of Ægospotami, and the Athenians eagerly welcomed him back to Athens.

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B.C.

The Græco-Persian fleet was stationed at the

southern port of Corinth, on the Saronic Gulf, and Pharnabazus helped the Athenians with men and money to restore the fortifications of the city. Thus the independence which Athens had lost at the close of the Peloponnesian war, was restored by the instrumentality of Conon, although her supremacy as a maritime empire was never again raised to its former condition. The struggle between the Spartans and the allies was fought out at Corinth, whose fortifications prevented Agesilaus and his troops from entering Attica, or Northern Greece, by land. As was frequently the case in Greek cities, dissensions arose in Corinth between the oligarchic and democratic factions. The latter summoned the Argives to their aid: the former appealed to the Spartans. An encounter ensued, in which the Spartans and the Corinthian nobles were victorious, and Agesilaus in the following year took Lechæum, the northern port of Corinth, and dismantled the long walls which connected it with the city. This was followed by the close investment of Corinth on the north side, but the city itself, and the southern port, was still held by the allies. A sally of the Corinthians and allies, under the command of Iphicrates, an Athenian, made in the course of the summer against some heavy armed Spartan troops, was completely successful. They were defeated with great slaughter; and Agesilaus withdrew his army, and retired to Sparta, permitting the allies to re-occupy all the positions that he had taken in the isthmus. Agesilaus subsequently retrieved his losses in some measure during the year by the conquest of Acarnania, but Spartan pride received a blow through the recent reverse at Lechæum, from which it took some time to recover.

The Spartans now sought to refer the disputes that had so long existed among the Greek states to the king of Persia for decision, and a Spartan, Antalcidas by name, was sent to Tiribazus, the satrap of Lydia, to propose the abolition of all confederacies among them for the future, and that each Greek city should be independent, and placed under a government of its own choice. The cities and dependencies on the coast of Asia Minor and the Asiatic islands they proposed to give up to the Persian king. Athens, and the states in alliance with her, sent Conon to Tiribazus, to declare that none of them would submit to be bound by the proposals of Sparta,

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B.C.

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B.C.

and Conon was treacherously thrown into prison, and never returned to Athens. Tiribazus promised to try to gain the consent of the Persian king to the plans of Sparta, but was superseded in his satrapy by Struthas, a Persian, who had no love for either Athenians or Spartans, and who soon defeated the Lacedæmonian troops, stationed on the coast of Asia Minor.

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B.C.

Soon afterwards the war between Athens and Sparta was resumed at sea. A Spartan fleet, fitted out under the command of Teleutias, another brother of Agesilaus, took a small Athenian squadron on its way to Cyprus to aid Evagoras in that island in his struggle against Persia, and landed in Rhodes, which had transferred its allegiance from Sparta to Athens, and substituted a democratic for an oligarchic form of government shortly before the battle of Cnidus. On this the Athenians sent Thrasybulus to the Hellespont, and this able admiral succeeded in restoring the authority of Athens in the Greek colonies on its coasts, and on many of the Greek islands. He was killed at Aspendus in Pamphylia in a collision between his troops and the inhabitants, when on his way to encounter Teleutias, in Rhodes. The Spartans made various attempts to recover their supremacy in the Hellespont and Bosphorus for some time, but without success.

Teleutias, unable to reduce the democratic party in Rhodes to subjection, through want of money, sailed with the small squadron under his command to Ægina, which had recovered its freedom after the Peloponnesian war, and which the Athenians were now attacking. His period of office having expired just as he reached the island, he was obliged to resign the command to his successor, Hierax, who returned to Rhodes, leaving a few ships before Ægina, under the command of Gorgopas, who was enticed on shore, and killed in a skirmish with the Athenians. After his death a mutiny

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B.C.

took place on board the Lacedæmonian fleet, the sailors being discontented on account of not receiving the arrears of pay due to them, but it was soon appeased by Teleutias, who was sent from Sparta to take the command. As action is always the best thing to keep men quiet when an insubordinate spirit has shown itself in them, Teleutias made a dash at the Athenian ships in the harbour of the Piræus, and as the sailors were unprepared for

an attack, he disabled a great many of them, and carried off a number of traders and coasters as prizes.

Peace, however, was once more to be renewed in a short time, owing to the ultimate success of the negotiations of Antalcidas, who had visited the Persian court himself, in order to urge upon the king the acceptance of his proposals. By the contracting parties it was settled that all the mainland of Asia Minor, and the islands of Cyprus and Clazomenæ, should be considered Persian territory, that all the Greek cities should be free and self-governed; but that Athens should retain Lemnos, Imbros, and Scyros. The Persian king further agreed, in conjunction with Sparta, to make war on any state that refused to comply with the terms of the treaty, as it was called, and which was henceforth known as the "Peace of Antalcidas." Weakened by war, and destitute of resources, the Greek states had no other course open to them but to signify assent. Some of them, and especially Thebes, sought to evade compliance, but were obliged to bend to the will of Sparta, in order to avoid attack; and thus Greece, disunited and split into fragments, lay for a while at the mercy of the state, which, by foreign intervention, had rendered her influence supreme.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Establishment of the Thirty Tyrants in Athens .....	B.C. 404	Accession in Sparta of the Proclid King Agesilaus II. ....	B.C. 396
Overthrow of Thirty Tyrants, and the Council of Ten, and re-establishment of democracy. — Introduction of Ionian alphabet .....	" 403	Invasion of Lydia by Agesilaus II. ....	" 396
War between Sparta and Elis: the former victorious .....	" 401	Confederation against Sparta: outbreak of Corinthian war.....	" 394
Famous "Retreat of the Ten Thousand," under Xenophon and others ..	400	Athenians, Thebans, and allies defeated before Corinth. — Spartan fleet defeated off Cnidus by Conon. — Agesilaus victorious at Coronea .....	" 394
Trial, condemnation, and death of Socrates ..	399	The Long Walls and fortifications of Athens rebuilt by Conon .....	" 393

6. THE OLYNTHIAN WAR. — RENEWED HOSTILITIES  
THEBES, AND ATHENS, AND SPARTA. — THE  
—THEBAN SUPREMACY.—EPAMINONDAS.

At the commencement of the Peloponnesian War, the smaller colonies in the peninsula of Chalcidice were transferred to Olynthus, by the advice of Olynthus, by this ingress of population, he gained power and importance. When Amyntas I. died, he left to leave Macedonia by the Illyrians, he

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Olynthians to take possession of the towns that he could no longer

B.C.

federacy was formed among the cities, the head of which was placed Olynthus. It included some of the settlements on the coast, Acanthus and Apollonia, refused to join Olynthus determined to take up arms to defend himself. As Sparta was now the champion of independence and self-government among the cities, which were provided by the "Peloponnesian League"

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the settlements threatened by the Illyrians, she sent her for aid, and their petition

B.C.

Amyntas, who was now reinstated in power, and who was anxious to regain power or influence, had previously handed over to Olynthus the cities of Chalcidice and Sparta, which he followed and



had marched through Boeotia, and halted on their way outside Thebes. At this time, in accordance with an old custom, the Cadmea, or citadel of Thebes, was held by the Theban women, it being just before the celebration of the Thesmophoria, and the Spartans being admitted into the city by the oligarchic party, seized the citadel, declared that the city was vanquished, and obliged the Thebans, as a conquered people, to add a contingent to the force that was marching against Olynthus. The city was retained by Sparta under the administration of the oligarchists until the close of the Olynthian war, and this not only renewed the bitter feeling of hatred towards Sparta that was aroused in Thebes by the Peace of Antalcidas, but added to the dislike and animosity with which she was regarded by Athens and other of the states of Greece.

At this time Epaminondas, who afterwards achieved the liberty of Thebes, and rendered her supreme throughout Greece, had shown no signs of his great capacity as a general and statesman. Wise, just, and unwilling to stain his hands in blood, even to give freedom to his city, he refused to join in the conspiracy which was formed by his friend Pelopidas, then in exile at Athens, for its deliverance. The plot, however, was carried out, and Pelopidas and six companions having returned in disguise from Athens, murdered the polemarchs of Thebes at a banquet given in the house of one of the conspirators, and summoned the Thebans to rise in self-defence. Epaminondas was placed at the head of the restored democracy, and the Spartan garrison were compelled to surrender. No sooner was the first blow struck at Sparta, than a restless desire ran through Greece to follow it up, and a confederation was formed, of which Athens, most of the Boeotian cities, and many other Greek towns, became members, a common fund being levied for the general purposes of the League. Everything was done to perfect the defences of Thebes, and a body of 300 men, called the Sacred Band, was formed by Pelopidas for the defence of the Theban citadel. The provisions of the Peace of Antalcidas were blown to the winds, and a policy of union and mutual dependence and support was once more substituted for one of isolation, independence, and self-government.

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B.C.

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B.C.

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B.C.

The Spartans were not slow in responding to the challenge :

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B.C.

they invaded Boeotia and plundered the country in all directions, the Thebans being unable to come up with them and force them to give battle. The same thing happened again in the following year, but at last the

**376**

B.C.

Thebans defeated the Spartan Cleombrotus, who had succeeded Agesilaus in the command, the king being seriously wounded, near Mount Cithaeron. It was now determined to send a Spartan fleet to lay waste the north-east coast of Boeotia, but it was totally defeated and destroyed by the Athenians off Naxos. The advantages thus gained by Thebes and Athens were followed by the adhesion

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B.C.

of Cephalonia, Corcyra, and Acarnania to the Theban League, and by the exertions of Pelopidas, the Boeotian cities that had held aloof from it on its first institution were gradually brought into it, and all were now gathered into the confederacy except Orchomenus.

Dissensions, however, soon arose between Thebes and Athens, from various causes, and a treaty had already been concluded between Athens and Sparta for the renewal of peace, when it was rendered null and void by the restoration of some exiles to Zacynthus by Timotheus, the Athenian admiral, in the Ionian Sea, contrary to the stipulations of Sparta. As Athens refused to allow them to be removed, the Spartans attacked Corcyra, but were obliged to abandon their

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B.C.

purpose by the opportune arrival of an Athenian fleet. Once more Sparta sought the good offices of Persia to enforce the terms of the treaty of Antalcidas, but could obtain no more than a general order for the Greek states to adhere to its provisions. Soon after, the

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B.C.

disposition shown by Plataea to renew the old Athenian alliance, provoked an attack from Thebes, and the town was destroyed, its territory added to Thebes, and the inhabitants obliged to take refuge in Athens.

The Athenians themselves now made overtures to Sparta for peace, and the representatives of the states principally interested sent envoys to Sparta to discuss

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B.C.

the question, Callias being the chief among those sent from Athens, and Epaminondas the principal of the Thebans.

The terms of the treaty called the Treaty of Callias were the independence and self-government of every city, each to

possess the privilege of attaching itself to either Athens or Sparta at pleasure; and the withdrawal of the Spartan garrisons from all the cities that they had occupied. As this rendered Athens and Sparta supreme in Greece, and deprived Thebes of her ascendancy over the Boeotian cities, Epaminondas refused to agree to it, and orders were sent from Sparta to Cleombrotus, then with his troops in Phocis, to invade Boeotia without delay. Epaminondas, who had hurried homewards from Sparta to make arrangements for the defence of his country, attacked him on the plain of Leuctra, and by his skilful tactics won a signal victory. Cleombrotus, and most of the Spartans who were with him, fell on the field of battle. When the news of this discomfiture reached Sparta, the Ephors were superintending the gymnastic solemnities, and, being unwilling to interrupt or adjourn the festival, sent information to the relatives of those who had fallen in the battle: On this occasion, the magnanimity of the Spartans shone forth in all its lustre. The fathers, mothers, and relatives of those who had been slain, mutually embraced and congratulated each other; while the friends of those who had escaped from the battle hid themselves among the women, or appeared in tattered clothes, with their arms folded, and their eyes fixed on the ground. They who had fled from the engagement should have been degraded from their honours, condemned to appear in garments of different colours, and with their beards half shaved, and without resistance suffer anyone to beat them. As the execution of the sentence, however, might have been attended with danger, Agesilaus said, "Let the laws sleep for this day, and resume their authority to-morrow," by which means he preserved to the state the institutions of Lycurgus entire, as well as the obnoxious persons from infamy.

The first care of Epaminondas after the victory of Leuctra, was to take measures for the proper organization of the Boeotian confederacy, and to seek fresh alliances among the other states of Greece. He then turned his attention to the humiliation of Sparta, and, in conjunction with the Argives, Eleans, and Arcadians, entered Laconia and laid waste a great part of the country. The appearance of Epaminondas on Lacedæmonian soil was followed by a revolt of the Helots, and the Theban general took advantage of this to restore Messenia to her original position among the states of Greece, as an independent power. He also brought

the Arcadian towns into a federal union, under a new city, which he founded and named Megalopolis. In the following year Epaminondas again led an army into the Peloponnesus, but the campaign was not attended with any decisive result. On his third expedition thither to lend assistance to the democratic party in Achaia, he contrived by his diplomatic skill to bring all the cities of the Achæan League into alliance with the Theban confederacy (366 B.C.).

In the meantime, considerable confusion had been caused in Thessaly by the attempt of Alexander the tyrant of Pheræ to make himself master of the whole country. Pelopidas was sent to the assistance of the Thessalians, and soon defeated Alexander. From Thessaly Pelopidas was called into Macedonia, to settle a quarrel between the king, Alexander, and his brother Ptolemy. His mediation proved of little effect, for in 368 B.C. Alexander II. was murdered by Ptolemy, and Pelopidas again entered the country, when it was arranged that Ptolemy should hold the throne in trust for Perdiccas, a younger brother of Alexander, and a legitimate son of Amyntas II., which Ptolemy was not. It was in the same year that Pelopidas was treacherously surprised in Thessaly by Alexander of Pheræ, and only released on the arrival of Epaminondas with troops, after his return from the Peloponnesus. Pelopidas was then sent to Persia to counteract the intrigues of Athens and Sparta, who were seeking to establish their own supremacy over the Greek states at the expense of Thebes and those who were not disposed to submit to either of them (365 B.C.). Soon after his return he was sent again to fight for the independence of Thessaly, which was threatened a second time by Alexander of Pheræ, and he fell in the hour of victory in the battle of Cynocephalæ (364 B.C.).

During this time the Spartans had been busily employed in undermining the Theban alliance in the Peloponnesus, and had succeeded in drawing over to their side the cities of

**362**

B.C.

Achaia, Elis, Mantinea, and a considerable part of Arcadia. To stop the intrigues of Sparta, Epaminondas marched a fourth time into the Peloponnesus, and, in conjunction with the Argives, Messenians, and such of the Arcadians as had remained faithful to Thebes, endeavoured to carry Sparta by surprise. His plans were, however, frustrated by the measures taken by Agesilaus for the

protection of the city, and he was obliged to withdraw. Soon after this he encountered the Spartans and their allies at Mantinea, where, like his friend Pelopidas, he fell in the moment of victory. His death neutralised the important advantages that would have resulted from the battle had he lived, and the power of Thebes in Greece collapsed as speedily as it had arisen. A general peace ensued, and all the Greek states, with the exception of Sparta, agreed to recognise the state of affairs which had been brought about by the efforts of Epaminondas. The Spartans were never able to recover that reputation and influence which they lost in the Theban war. Agesilaus, in concert with the Athenians and Tachos, king of Egypt, prepared to invade Asia, but the Spartan king withdrew from the scheme because the chief command of the expedition was not assigned to him. The Egyptians, too, groaning under the taxes that Tachos imposed on them to provide for the expenses of the war, revolted, and by the assistance of Agesilaus placed his son Nectanebo II. on the throne. Soon after this, Agesilaus, who had now attained a great age, died in Egypt, and was succeeded by his son Archidamus.

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B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of the Olynthian war .....	B.C. 383	Meeting of representatives of Greek states at Sparta. Treaty of Callias .....	B.C. 371
Surprise of the Theban camp, called the Cadmea, by the Spartans .....	„ 382	Victory of the Thebans over the Spartans at Leuctra .....	„ 371
End of Olynthian war. Recovery of the city of Thebes from the Spartans .....	„ 379	Invasion of Laconia by Epaminondas. Messenian independence restored. Arcadian confederation founded by Epaminondas .....	„ 369
Alliance of Thebes and Athens. Invasion of Boeotia by Spartan troops .....	„ 378	Second invasion of the Peloponnesus by Epaminondas .....	„ 368
Defeat of Cleombrotus and the Spartans near Mount Cithæron .....	„ 376	Third invasion of the Peloponnesus. Cities of Achaia in alliance with Thebes .....	„ 366
Destruction of the Spartan fleet off Naxos by the Athenians .....	„ 376	Mission of Pelopidas to Persia .....	„ 365
Quarrel between Thebes and Athens. Destruction of Plataea .....	„ 372	The battle of Cynoseph-	

also in Thessaly: death of Pelopidas .....	B.C. 364	and death of Epami- nondas .....	B.C. 362
Fourth invasion of the Peloponnesus by Epa- minondas. Victory of Thebans at Mantinea,		Expedition of the aged Spartan king Agesilaus II. to Egypt, and his death .....	„ 361

## CHAPTER VIII

## RISE OF MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY IN GREECE.

360 B.C. to 336 B.C.

## 1. THESSALY AND THE THESSALIANS.

OF the three states which lay to the north of the main-land of Greece, namely Epirus, Thessaly, and Macedonia, the third now begins to assume prominence in Greek affairs. Thessaly never played any very conspicuous part in the history of Greece, but it will be as well to give a brief sketch of her separate history for the sake of filling up a gap that would otherwise exist by its omission, before entering on the story of Macedonia and its connection with and influence over Greece. Epirus, for reasons that will be evident enough presently, may be neglected for the present.

Thessaly was a level country, bordered by mountain ranges, and lying between Epirus on the west, Macedonia on the north, and the mainland of Greece on the south. It is said to have been called *Æolis* originally, and to have been peopled by *Æolian* Greeks. Eventually a tribe from Thesprotia, in

**1125** Epirus, established supremacy over the country,  
B.C. which acquired its new name, Thessaly, from Thes-  
salus, who was either the son of *Æmon* or of *Her-*

cules, it is uncertain which. It was traversed from west to east by the river *Peneus*, and was anciently divided into four districts, *Thessaliotis*, *Istæotis*, *Pelasgiotis*, and *Phthiotis*. These were probably kingdoms in early times, but subsequently became republics, or rather states, under an oligarchic form of government.

In Thessaly were the plains of *Pharsalia*, and the delightful valley of *Tempe*, which was so pleasantly situated between the mountains of *Ossa*, *Pelion*, and *Olympus*, and so decorated with the gifts of nature, that it was considered as the garden of the *Muses*. This country abounded in oxen and excellent

steeds; and the Thessalians were expert in the management of horses. Among its chief towns were Larissa and Cranon.

In the reign of Deucalion Thessaly was covered with a deluge, which destroyed all its inhabitants, excepting Deucalion and his wife Pyrrha, who were said to have repopled the country by casting behind them stones, which became men and women. In the reign of Pelias, the Argonauts, under the conduct of Jason, fetched from Colchis the golden fleece, which was guarded by a bull with brazen feet and breathing forth flames, and by a terrible dragon.

1548

B.C.

1263

B.C.

The next Thessalian prince, both in time and fame, was the celebrated Achilles, whose mother, knowing that if he went to the siege of Troy he would be slain, but that Troy could not be taken without him, disguised him in the dress of a female, and sent him to the court of Lycomedes, king of Scyros. He was, however, discovered by the subtle Ulysses, who went as a merchant, and offered toys and jewels for sale to the daughters of Lycomedes. Achilles made choice of some arms which Ulysses showed him, and thus made himself known.

This is all that is necessary to point out with regard to the early and legendary history of Thessaly. After the establishment of the four districts that have been named, they were united in a common league for defensive purposes, and placed under an officer called the *Tagus*, whose office closely resembled that of dictator at Rome in after-times, and whose duty it was to maintain order, and lead the troops of the confederation in time of war. Thessaly sent members to the Amphictyonic council, but had no particular interest in common with the proper states of Greece.

At the time of the Persian invasion of Darius and Xerxes we have seen Thessaly affording a passage to the Persian troops without an effort to stop their progress. Later on, when Athens was approaching the height of her power and glory, an expedition was sent against Thessaly under Myronides, and failed to accomplish the object in view, which was to bring the country either into alliance with, or subjection to Athens. It was a frequent road for the Greek troops that sought to enter Asia Minor, or to attack the colonies on the coast of Thrace, and Brasidas and the Spartans marched

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B.C.

426

B.C.

through it to attack Amphipolis. Subsequently the Thes-  
salians came more frequently into contact with the Greek

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B.C.

states, and assisted the Boeotians against the Spar-  
tans. The alliance was not, however, placed on any  
sure basis, for the *Tagus*, Jason, refused to partici-  
pate in an attack on the Spartan camp after the battle of

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B.C.

Leuctra, and was assassinated. How Pelopidas in-  
vaded Thessaly in order to put a stop to the preten-  
sions of Alexander of Phæræ has been already told,  
and also how he fell there at the battle of Cynocephala.

It was brought under the dominion of Macedonia by Philip  
II. of Macedon in 344 B.C. He had invaded the country  
nine years before, but had failed to subdue it. Ultimately

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B.C.

Thessaly was rendered independent by the Romans,  
but was erected into a Roman province some time  
after the subjugation of Greece by the great power  
that they extended its dominion over the greater part of the  
known world.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Settlement of the Thes- protians of Epirus in Thessaly .....	B.C. 1124	tator of Thessaly, mur- dered by the Thebans	B.C. 370
Deluge of Deucalion in Thessaly .....	" 1548	Pelopidas marches into Thessaly against Alex- ander of Phæræ .....	" 368
Argonautic expedition under Jason of Thes- saly .....	" 1263	Battle of Cynocephala, and death of Pelopidas .....	" 364
Invasion of Thessaly by Athenians under My- ronides .....	" 454	First invasion of Thes- saly by Philip II. of Macedon .....	" 353
March of Brasidas and the Spartans through Thessaly .....	" 424	Thessaly subjected by Philip II. of Macedon .....	" 344
Alliance between Thes- saly and Boeotia against Sparta .....	" 395	Liberation of Thessaly effected by the Ro- mans .....	" 197
Jason, the Tagus, or dic- tator of Thessaly, mur- dered by the Thebans		Thessaly reduced to the condition of a Roman province .....	" 108

#### 2. EARLY HISTORY AND RISE OF MACEDONIA.

Macedonia was bounded on the north by the Scardus, Or-  
belus, and Scomius Ranges; on the south by the river Haliac-  
mon and Cambunian Mountains, which separated it from  
Thessaly; on the west by the Pindus and Bernus Mountains,  
which divided it from Epirus and Illyria; and on the east by



the *Ægean Sea* and the river *Strymon*, which divided it from *Thrace*; ultimately its frontier on the east was pushed forward to the river *Nestus*.

The *Macedonians* professed the same religion as the *Greeks*. The form of government was monarchical. The kings often performed the sacerdotal functions, erected statues and altars, and immolated victims. Though the laws emanated from the prince, it was necessary that they should be agreeable to the principles of natural justice before they could be carried into execution. The *Macedonians* being naturally brave, discipline rendered them invincible. War became the business of the nation; and the only education which the people received was in the camp. The infantry consisted of three kinds of soldiers; the light-armed, the *peltastæ*, who were better armed, and the heavy-armed. The last formed the celebrated phalanx,\* which was terrible in attack, unshaken in resistance, and as formidable by the regularity and quickness of its movements, when it advanced, as by its firmness when it assumed a position of defence.

*Caranus*, an *Argive*, carried a colony from *Argos* into *Macedonia*, and made himself master of one of its cities, and afterwards of the whole kingdom, at  
814  
B.C.  
dates variously stated at from 814 B.C. to 796 B.C.

We may assume that he entered the country about the time indicated by the first date, and had contrived to bring it under his control, and establish the monarchy, by the second. The prince *Coenus* and *Thurimas*, his immediate successors, had more occasion to use their prudence than their valour.

*Perdiccas I.* was a person of great abilities and an enterprising spirit. He extended his dominions so far, and his fame so much eclipsed that of his predecessors, that some have reckoned him the founder  
729  
B.C.

of the *Macedonian* monarchy. It is not, however, till we arrive at the reign of *Amyntas I.* that we properly attain historical ground. We know that after the return  
513  
B.C.  
of *Darius* from his invasion of the *Scythians*, he sent troops into *Macedonia*, and compelled *Amyntas* to conclude a forced alliance with him, and to recognise his

\* For an account of the form and order of the phalanx, see vol. III. (*A History of Rome*), page 51.

throne. He was a prince of great sound diligence ; and the liberal and enlightened adopted, was much more beneficial to the courage of Alexander, or the craft of him and disciplined a very considerable army than all his predecessors in aggrandizing the Macedonian monarchy. He was by his patronage of learning and learned was adorned with the works of the Greeks.

After the death of Archelaus, the throne was seized by Orestes and Aëropus, who re-

\* The kings of Macedon, from Caranus monarchy, to the last king, Perseus, with given as follows :—

Caranus .....	B.C. 814	Philip I.
Cœnus.....	786	Aëropus
Thurimas .....	774	Alcetas
Perdiccas I. ....	729	Amynta
Argæus .....	678	Alexander

These kings claimed a descent from Temistocles of Argos, and on this account Alexander I entered the lists at the Olympic games.

Perdiccas II.....	B.C. 454	Demetrius
Archelaus .....	413	Pyrrhus
Orestes and Aëropus ...	399	Lysimachus
Pausanias .....	394	Ptolemy
Amyntas II. ....	383	Meleager
Alexander II. ....	369	Antipater
Ptolemy Alorites .....	367	Sosthenes

Pausanias, and the history of this country is obscure till Amyntas II. deposed Pausanias, and securing the crown in his family, transmitted it to his son, Alexander II. The reign of this last prince was of short duration, as he was murdered by his illegitimate brother, Ptolemy Alorites, when he had been barely two years on the throne. He left two legitimate brothers, Perdiccas and Philip, the elder of whom was a minor. A Macedonian noble, Pausanias by name, then claimed the kingdom, and was on the point of obtaining it, when Eurydice, the mother of the princes, found assistance in the affection of Iphicrates, an Athenian general. Being chosen arbiter between the competitors, he had decided in favour of Perdiccas, when the throne was seized by Ptolemy Alorites, who was deposed by the Thebans under the command of Pelopidas, who reinstated Perdiccas in the kingdom. To secure the dependence of the Macedonians on Thebes, thirty youths were carried as hostages to that city, among whom was Philip, the brother of Perdiccas. Pelopidas placed the young prince with his friend Epaminondas, who had at his house a Pythagorean philosopher of great reputation. This philosopher instructed Philip in all those sciences which adorn the mind, and Epaminondas taught him the art of war. Whilst under the protection of this eminent Theban, the young prince had before his eyes examples of the most indefatigable activity, unshaken firmness of soul, love of justice, disinterestedness, and candour. He is, however, accused of having retained none of those virtues, but such as were suitable to his designs.

364  
B.C.

When Philip was informed of the death of his brother Perdiccas, he went secretly from Thebes to Macedon, where he found the people dejected, and the state in the greatest confusion, four formidable armies on the point of attacking the kingdom, a child on the throne, and two powerful competitors, Pausanias and Argæus, the former supported by the king of Thrace, and the latter by the Athenians, contriving to dispossess him. Philip, however, who was then only twenty-two years of age, undismayed by the evils which threatened the kingdom and the throne, boldly asserted the right of his infant nephew. He terminated the domestic troubles, gained over the people by his affability or promises, and caused the pretenders to the throne to disappear by giving up Amphipolis to the Athenians, and

359  
B.C.

## A HISTORY OF GREECE

of a similar kind to the king of Thrace. This was immediately followed by the annexation of Pæonia, at the north of Macedonia proper, to the kingdom, the discomfiture of the Illyrians, who had crossed the range, and occupied some of the western districts. With great successes, the nation suffered him to assume opposition the place of his nephew; and in a few Philip became the most powerful of monarchs. Of his accession to power, to obtain supremacy over the of Greece; but he always concealed his ambitious projects with great art. When he found that the Athenians were determined to place a garrison in Amphipolis, a city which lay convenient for his purposes, he marched against it, although he was barely a twelvemonth since he had resigned all claim to it, assuring the Athenians that he did so in order to terminate the dissensions of the inhabitants, and to confer firm possession of it to them. When he had

**358** B.C. obtained possession of it the Athenians, whose support he was desirous of gaining, had sent to Athens to propose an alliance, he secured their friendship by giving them Potidea, which belonged to Athens. He then marched against Pydna, and took it; but refused to resign Amphipolis, on the pretence that the Athenians had not given up Pydna to him according to promise. He subsequently took possession of the whole country between the rivers Nestus and Strymon, not as he said, to make himself master of the gold and silver mines which they contained, but to assist the inhabitants against those restless neighbours by whom they were threatened. He cared little whether his stratagems were discovered after the event, provided they were not disconcerted in the course of the enterprise.

### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Establishment of Macedonian kingdom by Caranus, an Argive	B.C. 814	Perdiccas II. obtains possession of the kingdom	B.C. 359
Darius compels Macedonia to enter into alliance with him	" 513	Death of Perdiccas II., and accession of Philip II.	" 358
Accession of Alexander I.	" 500	Philip II. takes possession of the Athenian colonies of Amphipolis and Pydna	" 357
Subjugation of Macedonia by Xerxes	" 481		

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at- **352**  
De- B.C.

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He exhorted  
Persian king,

concessions of a similar kind to the king of Thrace. This was immediately followed by the annexation of Pæonia, a country to the north of Macedonia proper, to the kingdom, and the discomfiture of the Illyrians, who had crossed the Bernus range, and occupied some of the western districts. After such great successes, the nation suffered him to assume without opposition the place of his nephew; and in a few years, Philip became the most powerful of monarchs.

Philip, there can be no doubt, had determined, from the time of his accession to power, to obtain supremacy over the whole of Greece; but he always concealed his ambitious projects with great art. When he found that the Athenians neglected to place a garrison in Amphipolis, a city which lay convenient for his purposes, he marched against it, although it was barely a twelvemonth since he had resigned all claim to it, assuring the Athenians that he did so in order to termi-

358

B.C.

nate the dissensions of the inhabitants, and to confirm the possession of it to them. When he had obtained possession of it the Athenians offered to give him Pydna for it; but, as the Olynthians, whose support he was desirous of gaining, had sent to Athens to propose an alliance, he secured their friendship by giving them Potidea, which belonged to Athens. He then marched against Pydna, and took it; but refused to resign Amphipolis, on the pretence that the Athenians had not given up Pydna to him according to promise. He subsequently took possession of the whole country between the rivers Nestus and Strymon, not, as he said, to make himself master of the gold and silver mines which they contained, but to assist the inhabitants against those restless neighbours by whom they were threatened. He cared little whether his stratagems were discovered after the event, provided they were not disconcerted in the course of the enterprise.

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Darius compels Macedonia to enter into alliance with him.....	„ 513	Death of Perdiccas II., and accession of Philip II. ....	„ 359
Accession of Alexander I. ....	„ 500	Philip II. takes possession of the Athenian colonies of Amphipolis and Pydna.....	„ 353
Subjugation of Macedonia by Xerxes .....	„ 481		

## 3. THE SOCIAL WAR.—THE SACRED WAR.—DEMOSTHENES.

HAVING brought the separate history of Macedonia to the accession of Philip II., and the epoch at which this king began to intermeddle with Grecian affairs, we can resume the common history of the Greek states, with which that of Macedonia is now inseparably intertwined.

It has been seen that Philip, by means of craft and force, had deprived the Athenians of Amphipolis and Pydna. Had Athens been strong and powerful, as in days of yore, he would have hesitated ; but at this juncture, Athens was engaged in a war for the recovery of the Thracian Chersonese from the Thracians, which lasted 358  
B.C. for some years, and a contest with Thebes for the island of Eubœa, in which she was successful. Her victories, however, were won by means of a paid army of mercenaries, which did injury to the state in two ways : first, by causing the Athenians to decline to serve in the time of war, which heretofore had been compulsory ; and, secondly, by causing the state to expend money in paying the mercenaries for their services, which would have been saved and devoted to other purposes, if the citizens had been content to do their duty.

Besides these wars, another, afterwards known as the Social War, was on the point of breaking out. The inhabitants of Chios, Rhodes, Cos, and Byzantium, weary of the tyranny of the Athenians, determined to throw off the yoke, and free themselves. At the first notice of this revolt, the Athenians sent a large fleet to Chios, under the command of Chabrias, Chares, Timotheus, and Iphicrates. The troops under the last-named three were landed, and all was ready for a combined attack on the chief town of the island by sea and land, when Chabrias was killed, while setting his fleet in order of battle. Notwithstanding this, Chares wished to engage the enemy, but not being able to prevail on Timotheus and Iphicrates to do so, he accused them of having taken bribes to desist. They were brought to trial, and Iphicrates was acquitted, but Timotheus was subjected to a fine of one hundred talents, and, being unable to pay it, retired to Chalcis, where he died four years after, of grief, for his unmerited disgrace. The Athenians remitted the greater part of the fine to his son Conon, but obliged him to pay a tenth of it, which they appropriated to the repair of those walls which had been rebuilt

by his namesake and grandfather. Peace was restored by the acknowledgment of the independence of Byzantium and the revolted islands, but Athens was greatly weakened by the loss of the tribute which they had hitherto been accustomed to pay, and which formed an important item in her revenues.

During the early part of the Social War, and the time that immediately followed it, Philip was engaged in extending his frontier in the direction of Thrace, and he continued to take measures for the better security of his dominions. He was now on the high road to the attainment of his ambitious views, and an anecdote is told of him at this time that is worth relating. He was returning out of Thrace, after the surrender of Potidea, when a messenger arrived with the news that Parmenio had defeated the Illyrians; soon after, came another, informing him that his chariot had gained the prize at the Olympic games; and, at almost the same time, arrived a third, acquainting him that his wife Olympias had brought forth a son at Pella. This son was the celebrated Alexander the Great. Philip, terrified at so signal a happiness, exclaimed, "Great Jupiter, in return for so many blessings, send me a slight misfortune."

Before the Social War was over the Athenians became involved in another conflict, to which the name of the Sacred War was given. The Phocians having cultivated a small part of the Crissæan plain, which had been dedicated to Apollo, were sentenced by the Amphictyonic council, or general assembly of the Greek states, to pay a heavy fine, or quit their country. Being unable to comply with the former alternative, and unwilling to submit to expatriation, they refused to acknowledge the jurisdiction of that court, and by order of the Amphictyons the Locrians and Boeotians made war on them. The Phocians gained the advantage at first, and seizing all the treasures of the temple at Delphi, hired mercenary troops, who joined them in great numbers for the sake of the pay. The story of the war has been already told, and need not be repeated.

After the capture of Orchomenus by Onomarchus, the leader of the Phocians, and his subsequent defeat at Chæronea, Philip, who had been busily employed in the reduction of Methone, an Athenian colony on the Thermaic Gulf, which the Athenians had suffered



to fall through not sending troops to the support of the inhabitants, was called into Thessaly to aid the people of Larissa against Lycophron, the tyrant of Pheræ. Lycophron in his turn obtained assistance from Phocis, and Onomarchus compelled Philip to retire from Thessaly, and then returned into Bœotia and took Chæronea. Philip, however, hastened to recruit his forces, and entered Thessaly. Onomarchus hastened to oppose him, but his army was routed, while he himself fell in the conflict. Immediately after Pheræ was taken by the Macedonians, Philip proposed to march into Northern Greece to subjugate the Phocians.

Athens and Sparta had both promised their support to the Phocians at the outbreak of the war, but Athens was slow and dilatory in action, and Sparta's chief interest in the contest lay in the hope that the struggle between Phocis and Thebes would afford her the opportunity of undoing all that had been done by Epaminondas in the Peloponnesus. With this purpose Sparta, in 353 B.C., commenced an attack on Megalopolis. Both the Megalopolitans and the Spartans sought alliance with Athens on this occasion; but Athens lent her support to the former, considering the existence of the Arcadian confederation and Messenia necessary as a check on Spartan ambition, while Thebes, Argos, Messenia, and Sicyon sent troops to the support of the threatened city, and defeated the Spartans in several battles. It was at this juncture that Philip was preparing to enter Phocis, and Athens, called to a sense of the danger that threatened Greece from this step, by the appeals of Demosthenes, sent a body of troops to the famous pass of Thermopylæ to oppose his progress. The cautious monarch, fearing lest he should rouse all Greece against him if he acted with too great precipitancy, retired to his own dominions.

352  
B.C.

It was just about this time that Demosthenes was beginning to rise into eminence as an orator. He was the son of an Athenian who had amassed a large fortune by the manufacture of sword blades. He had early in life applied himself to the study of oratory, and though he had many natural defects, he overcame them all, and by patience and attention acquired a manly and solid eloquence, which was superior, not only to that of his contemporaries, but even to that of all others of every preceding age and every nation. He exhorted the Athenians to live on good terms with the Persian king,

who possessed neither the power nor the will to conquer them ; and he cautioned them against the growing influence of Philip of Macedon, and exerted all his eloquence to rouse the Athenians to a proper sense of the danger which was to be apprehended from the designs of that sovereign.

But though Philip hesitated to take a step which might call all Greece into action against him, he did not hesitate to attack the Athenian possessions in the Thracian Chersonese, and to make a raid on the coast of Attica. The Athenians made preparations against him, it is true, but these were rendered of far less effect than they should have been by the efforts made by Phocion and others to maintain peace. Phocion, surnamed "the Good," for his justness and probity, was the leader of the peace party in Athens, and the principal advocate of the mistaken policy of non-resistance to Philip. He was a soldier and politician, and although he had no pretensions to be considered an orator, spoke justly, judiciously, and concisely, and was actuated only by a genuine wish to promote the benefit of his fellow-creatures by integrity and reason. Demosthenes was ardent and impassioned, but he used the fiery eloquence of which he was possessed to urge his countrymen onwards on the right path. Phocion, in his mildness and caution, on the contrary, proposed and supported a course which could only tend to the enslavement of his state and country.

It happened that the people of Olynthus, who had at last gained an insight into the ambitious views of Philip, and had learnt that his pretended friendship was but a bait to lure them to the loss of their freedom, had renewed their old connection with Athens. About two years after this was done

**350**

B.C.

Philip attacked the Olynthians, who appealed to Athens for assistance. This the Athenians were slow to afford, and when expeditions were sent out to the relief of Olynthus and the other cities of the peninsula of Chalcidice, they proved ineffectual to check Philip's progress, and at last the entire peninsula fell into his hands, and was annexed to Macedonia. The Athenians sent ambassadors, among whom was *Æschines*

**347**

B.C.

(afterwards so celebrated as the opponent of Demosthenes, and the advocate of Philip's policy), to the leading Greek states in turn to excite resistance to the Macedonian king, but none of them seemed disposed to fall in with their views.

Meanwhile the Sacred War had been proceeding, although the funds derived from the robbery of the temple of Delphi were nearly exhausted, and even the Phocians themselves were getting weary of it. The Thebans, anxious to put an end to the war by decisive measures, called on Philip to march to their assistance, and Philip entered Thessaly. The Phocians immediately occupied the pass of Thermopylæ, and sent to Athens and Sparta for auxiliary troops. Recognising the importance of the danger, the Athenians despatched a force immediately to the aid of the Phocians; but no sooner had they arrived than they were ordered to return by Phalæcus, the commander of the Phocians. Stung by the insult, the Athenians readily responded to Philip's overtures, and shortly after peace was concluded between Macedonia and all the Greek states except Phocis. 346  
B.C.

As the Phocians could now obtain no further aid from her former allies, the Sacred War was necessarily brought to an end by their surrender. Their cities were dismantled, and they were condemned to make restitution to Delphi in the enormous sum of 10,000 talents, to be paid by yearly instalments. But what was worse for Greece, they were also excluded from the Amphictyonic council, in which they had hitherto had two votes, and the votes of which they were thus deprived were given to Philip. This gave the Macedonian king, as a member of the only national council that Greece possessed, a right to intermeddle with her affairs, which he could not have claimed otherwise, except by the right acquired by force of arms.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of the Social War between Athens and Chios, &c. B.C.	358	Fruitless attack on Megalopolis by Sparta...	B.C. 353
Fall of Potidea: birth of Alexander the Great at Pella .....	„ 356	The throne taken from the Athenians by Philip, who prepares to enter Phocis.....	„ 352
Beginning of the Sacred War against Phocis: Delphi plundered by the Phocians.....	„ 356	Subjection of Olynthus and the cities of the Chalcidean peninsula by Philip .....	„ 347
Termination of the Social War: acknowledgment of independence of Byzantium, &c. ....	„ 355	Peace between Macedonia and Greek states, and the termination of the Sacred War .....	„ 346

#### 4. RENEWAL OF THE WAR.—CHÆRONEA.—DEATH OF PHILIP II.

The restraint imposed by the peace was hardly felt by all parties. Philip, goaded by insatiable ambition, longed to recommence active operations by which he might become absolute master of Greece, while the Athenians strongly objected to his interference in the affairs of the Peloponnesian states by taking the part of Messene and Arcadia against Sparta, and concluding a treaty with Argos. Philip's partisans were intriguing everywhere in his favour, and in 341 a.c. excited so serious a rising against Athens in Eubœa that the Athenian government was compelled to send a strong force thither to suppress the sedition and secure the island. Philip then attacked Byzantium and other Greek cities on the Propontis; and the Athenians, treating this as a positive rupture of the

**340**

B.C.

peace, and an open declaration of war, sent a powerful fleet to the relief of Byzantium, under the command of Phocion. This time the succour afforded by Athens was neither too late nor too small to be of use. Philip was obliged to withdraw his troops from the cities to which he had laid siege, but, with his usual cunning, made peace with the towns that he had attacked, so that they might not afford active support to the Athenians, against whom he continued to carry on the war by sea.

The following year saw Philip marching against the Scythians on the Danube. On his return from this ex-

**339**

B.C.

pedition through Thrace he became embroiled in a quarrel with some Thracian tribes, and a battle ensued, in which he was seriously wounded. Just at this time another Sacred War, or, as it is sometimes called, the Locrian War, broke out. This was occasioned by an accusation brought against the Locrians by Æschines of having, like the Phocians in previous years, cultivated a part of the Crissæan plain. The inhabitants of Amphissa were the portion of the Locrians who were specially charged with the offence. An attack was made on the part of the plain alleged to be cultivated by the men of Delphi, but they were beaten off by the Amphiassans. In consequence of this the council of the Amphietyons ordered Locris to be invaded, and gave the command of the expedition to Philip. The Macedonian king, seizing the opportunity that was thus offered to him of esta-

blishing himself in Greece, marched southwards at once, and after seizing the town of Elatea in Phocis, called on the Thebans to march with him against the Athenians, who were opposed to the attack on the Locrians, especially under the leadership of the Macedonian king. The Thebans, who had been as unwilling as the Athenians to sanction the attack on Locria, turned a deaf ear to his overtures, but responded willingly to an invitation from Athens to make common cause against him. Accordingly an allied force of Thebans and Athenians entered Phocis, and gained some slight advantage in encounters with the Macedonian troops in garrison in the Phocian town.

In the spring of the following year Philip resumed his operations with his usual vigour, and marching on Amphissa, destroyed the city. On this the allies, who had been joined by the Corinthians, Achæans, and some of the minor states and cities of Greece, withdrew into Bœotia, whither they were followed by the Macedonians. On August 7th the opposing forces came into collision on the plain of Chæronea, the one side fighting for dominion, the other making a stand for the liberty of their common country. Almost before the sun was risen the armies were set in battle array. Philip headed the right wing of the Macedonians which was opposed to the Athenians; and his son Alexander commanded the left wing, which faced the Sacred Band of the Thebans. The allied troops were commanded by the Athenian generals Lysicles and Chares, and the Theban general Theagenes. After a desperate conflict, in which the soldiers of the Sacred Band perished to a man, the Thebans were forced back by Alexander. The Athenians at first gained some advantage over Philip, but the Macedonian king, seeing the success of his son, led a furious charge against them, which stopped their progress, and after a short hand-to-hand encounter, they broke and fled. Theagenes fell on the field, but the Athenian generals survived, and one of them, Lysicles, was executed for cowardice and incompetency. Upwards of 2000 Athenians remained prisoners in Philip's hands after the battle. In his great joy Philip drank to excess on the battle-field, and then, striding over the corpses of the dead, sung with drunken derision the beginning of the decree which Demosthenes had drawn up as a declaration of war against him. After the first transports of pleasure were over, Philip

338  
B.C.

of Chæroneæ placed an obstacle to the people of all the Greek states, follow: Athenians, were powerless to do anything him with due submission as their master.

Having thus completely effected the c the Macedonian monarch immediately t towards the subjugation of Asia, and wa Greeks general of the expedition at a meeti to which all the Greek states, except Spar tives. But, in the midst of his preparatic the Persian power, a misunderstanding t

**337** Philip and Olympias, the moth  
ander, which caused him to di

**B.C.** marry Cleopatra, the niece of Al  
nobleman. The king of Macedon, how  
slain at the celebration of certain game  
marriage of Cleopatra, his daughter by Ol  
Alexander of Epirus. The assassin was  
Macedonian noble, and one of the king

**336** stabbed him in the left side,

**B.C.** armed in a grand procession,  
the twelve great deities of Gre  
that the murder was contrived by the  
and it is said that Alexander himself was

Thus fell Philip, in the forty-seventh  
the twenty-fourth of his reign. By cons  
we shall find that he possessed foresight

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Renewal of war with Athens. Attack on Byzantium, etc., by Philip II. ....	B.C. 340	by Philip. Battle of Chæronea, and subversion of the liberty of Greece .....	B.C. 338
Expedition of Philip II. against the Scythians ..	339	Marriage of Philip II. and Cleopatra .....	337
Third Sacred, or Locræan War commenced ..	339	Murder of Philip II. by Pausanias, a Macedonian noble .....	336
Destruction of Amphissa			

## CHAPTER IX.

## THE MACEDONIAN EMPIRE.

336 B.C. to 323 B.C.

## 1. ALEXANDER IN ASIA.

No sooner was the news spread through Greece that the king of Macedon was dead, than the Athenians gave themselves up to a ridiculous joy, wearing chaplets of flowers on their heads, as if they had won a great victory. For this, however, they had to solicit pardon, when **336**  
 Alexander proceeded through Greece a few weeks **B.C.**  
 after his accession, and was formally acknowledged by the states as the head of Greece.

On the death of Philip II., his son Alexander ascended the throne of Macedon, and took possession of a kingdom which the policy of the preceding reign had rendered flourishing and powerful. The works of Homer were the particular study and delight of this prince, who was distinguished for bodily strength and courage, and had given remarkable evidence of both in taming the charger Bucephalus, a horse which no one at the Macedonian court could manage to mount. Being appointed general of the combined army destined to invade the dominions of the king of Persia, at a meeting of the states, held at Corinth, he prepared for his eastern expedition; but, before crossing into Asia Minor, he found it necessary to secure safe passage for his troops through Thrace, by subduing the tribes of that country, and advancing against the Scythians, who threatened to hinder, if not

dreadful example struck terror into the  
nians, who had been counselled by Demos-  
Thebans, had a narrow escape, and Alexan-  
der, satisfied by an ample apology, and the banishment  
of the generals, who had been foremost in exci-  
ting resistance to him.

Before Alexander set out for Asia, he  
consulted the oracle of Apollo at Delphi, and the priestess  
standing on the tripod, the king attempted to

334 said, "My son, you are invi-

B.C. immediately replied, "It is an

omen." Soon afterwards he quitted

more to return to it, at the head of an army  
of infantry and 4000 cavalry, leaving his  
brother Antipater at home as regent during his absence.

In the ruins of Troy, he sacrificed victims in  
whose remains were deposited in the tomb  
and particularly of Achilles, from whom  
he derived his descent. The Persian satraps of  
the large army, part of which was composed  
of mercenaries, endeavoured to oppose his progress  
at the little river of the Troad; but they were  
destroyed by the impetuous onslaught of  
while Alexander's losses were comparatively  
small. Passing the Granicus, he marched through  
Asia Minor, receiving the submission of  
the cities through which he passed. Miletus



in Syria. Here he learned that the Persians under Darius had passed his army some miles to the north of the route he had chosen, and were in his rear. Turning back in haste, he attacked them in a strong position, on the banks of the Pinarus, near Issus. The impetuous charge of the Macedonians soon sent the Persians into headlong flight, and Darius narrowly escaped being taken prisoner. The camp equipage, the military chest, and Sysigambis and Statira, the mother and wife of Darius, and a vast amount of spoil, fell into Alexander's hands. Thousands of the enemy were destroyed in the battle and the rout which followed, but comparatively few of the Macedonians fell in the action.

Instead of pressing onwards to the heart of Persia, Alexander thought it wiser to take possession of all the Persian provinces on his way, and proceeded southward, through Phœnicia and Cœle Syria, to Damascus, which was surrendered to him. Thence he struck off westward to the coast, intending to visit Tyre; but, as the Tyrians denied him entrance into the city, he laid siege to it, and took it by assault, after a siege of several months' duration. 332  
B.C.  
From Tyre he passed on towards Jerusalem, where, after receiving the submission of the Jews, sacrifices were offered, at his desire, in the Temple. The whole of the sea-coast of the Mediterranean being now secured, from the Hellespont to the river Egyptus, Alexander passed into Egypt, where the people, wearied of Persian oppression, revolted in his favour. There he founded the city of Alexandria, and made a journey to the temple of Jupiter Ammon, whose son he was declared to be by the priests who had charge of the oracle.

The winter was passed in providing for the government of Egypt, and waiting for reinforcements from home. 331  
B.C.  
Quitting Egypt at the beginning of the following year, he marched back into Phœnicia, and there made preparations for the prosecution of his march against Darius. He met with no opposition in his progress eastward until he reached Arbela, a town near the foot of the Zagros mountains, in the district that lies between the Tigris and the Great Zab; and, when near this town, he learnt that Darius had assembled his forces in a great plain, not many miles from it, to oppose his progress. The battle of Arbela followed, with a result similar to that of Issus. The Persians were totally defeated, and Darius fled in haste to the northern

provinces of the empire, where he was subsequently murdered, before a body of horse whom Alexander had sent in pursuit in hopes of taking him alive, could come up with him (330 B.C.). The whole of the Persian empire now lay at the mercy of the conqueror, and Alexander, after a short stay at Babylon

and Susa, passed on to Persepolis and Pasargadæ, after which the northern provinces were speedily

subdued. It was while retreating before the troops of Alexander, that Darius, who was desirous of surrendering himself to the conqueror of his kingdom, was killed by Bessus, the satrap of Bactria. Soon after this event, a disgraceful act was committed by Alexander, in ordering—if it be true that he really sanctioned it, which is doubtful—the death of his old supporter and friend, Parmenio, who had been made governor of Media. His death was caused by the imprudence of his son, Philotas, who had made some remarks respecting Alexander, which were carried to the king, and gave him considerable cause for offence. Philotas was put to death on suspicion of treason, and the command of the Macedonian cavalry, which formed the body-guard of Alexander, and which had been held by Parmenio, was given to Clitus and Hephæstion, after Parmenio had shared his son's fate.

Another brutal act of Alexander, which was perpetrated

just as he had passed into Sogdiana, the most northern province of the Persian empire, was the murder of

his friend Clitus, whom he had appointed satrap of Bactria, and in whose honour he gave a magnificent banquet before he left the court to repair to his province.

The court of Alexander had become extremely brilliant by the concourse of great lords, princes, and even kings, who came to solicit his favour. Their flattery poisoned the mind of the monarch, who was charmed with their excessive praise and adoration, and offended that the Macedonians did not treat him with the same marks of respect. Clitus, who had saved the life of Alexander at the battle of the Granicus, hearing the king extolled above Castor and Pollux, and even Hercules, in the course of the entertainment, started up and said to the flatterers: "I cannot endure such fulsome and ridiculous language, by which you insult the gods, whilst you depreciate ancient heroes, that you may flatter the ears of a living prince." Alexander hearing this and other severe expressions, ran him through the body with a pike, and laid him

dead on the spot. The crime, however, was no sooner committed that passion gave way to repentance ; but even on this occasion the king was secured against remorse by flattery and false reasoning.

The following year was spent in warfare against the people of Sogdiana, who received assistance from the Scythian tribes on their northern frontier. It was during this campaign that he took prisoner a beautiful Bactrian, named Roxana, whom he married with great pomp and ceremony at Bactra, and he quitted Bactra in the ensuing year, and marched over the Paropamisus Mountains and along the course of the Cophen on his way to the country which is now known as the Punjaub, the north-eastern part of India. He crossed the Indus without opposition, but found the passage of the Hydaspes, now the Jheloum, disputed by Porus, into whose country he was about to enter. A battle ensued, in which Porus was defeated, and Alexander made his way over the Acesines (Chenab) and Hydraotes (Ravee).

328

B.C.

327

B.C.

Alexander seemed to have no other pleasure than that of ravaging, subduing, and destroying. However, when he prepared to pass the river Hyphasis (Sutlej), the most eastern of the five great streams, whose confluence forms the Indus, the Macedonians refused to march farther eastward, and protested that they would no longer hazard their lives to gratify his ambitious and oppressive designs. Being, therefore, obliged, by the immovable and unanimous resolution of his European troops, to set bounds to his trophies, he commanded twelve Macedonian altars, equal in height, and exceeding in bulk the greatest towers in that country, to be erected on the western bank of the Hyphasis, as marks of the extremity of his conquests. He then marched back to the banks of the Hydaspes, and having prepared a fleet, the command of which was given to Nearchus, he led the ships and army down the course of that river and the main stream of the Indus, until he reached the sea. Nearchus was then ordered to sail along the coast to the Persian Gulf, and then ascend the Tigris, while Alexander led the army homewards through Gedrosia and Carmania to Susa, where he was rejoined by Nearchus early in 325 B.C.

326

B.C.

But even in his return the restless curiosity and insatiable ambition of Alexander prepared new toils and dangers for



the Persians at Issus .....	B.C. 333	Equipment of a fleet on the Hydaspes, and passage of fleet and army to the mouth of the Indus .....	B.C. 326
Siege and capture of Tyre by Alexander...	„ 332	Return of Alexander by land, and Nearchus by sea, to Susa.....	„ 325
Departure of Alexander from Egypt .....	„ 331	Marriage of Alexander with Parysatis and Statira: mutiny and return of Macedonian troops.....	„ 325
Battle of Arbela, and defeat of Darius .....	„ 331	Return of Alexander to Babylon.....	„ 324
Murder of Darius by the satrap, Bessus .....	„ 330	Death of Alexander through a fever produced by excesses ...	„ 323
Execution of Philotas and Parmenio .....	„ 330		
Murder of Clitus by Alexander .....	„ 329		
Expedition into Sogdiana: marriage of Alexander and Roxana ..	„ 328		
Expedition to India.....	„ 327		

## 2. GREECE DURING THE REIGN OF ALEXANDER.—REVOLT OF SPARTA.

In order to preserve a proper sequence of occurrences as regards chronology, it will be necessary now to turn back and see what had been happening in Greece during Alexander's absence. As may be imagined, discontent was rife in all parts, caused by regret for the loss of freedom and want of sufficient internal strength to throw off the Macedonian yoke. Every movement of Alexander was carefully watched, everything that seemed to indicate the approach of a reverse eagerly welcomed in all parts of Greece; but while the Athenians contented themselves with talking about the course affairs were taking, and speculating about the ultimate issue, the Spartans, under the Proclid king, Agis III., were busily intriguing in the Peloponnesus to bring the state to take common action against Macedonia.

The first step taken by Agis was to enter into correspondence with the Persian satraps of Asia Minor, and it was determined that a Persian fleet and army should be despatched to Greece to co-operate with Sparta and such states as she had induced to entertain her proposals. This would have been done, had not the battle of Issus been fought, or rather lost, by the Persians. Its issue, however, materially lessened the assistance that would otherwise have been afforded to the Greeks, and a few galleys only were sent to Agis, with which he menaced Crete. His attempts

331

B.C.

death. Antipater's victory was followed by all the revolted states.

Nothing of any importance happened at the battle of Megalopolis, when Demosthenes and Athenian statesmen were accused, unju-

**325**       doubt, of peculation, and were  
B.C.       thrown into prison, through inability  
          that was demanded of them. De-

and went into exile at Aegina. Demosthenes and Alexander; he was, in truth, the worst enemy but there were many exiles from every state; they were warm supporters of Macedonian rule and had been compelled for their leaning towards A-

**324**       banishment. After his return from  
B.C.       ordered that all these exiles should  
          return home to strengthen his

Greece. This the Greeks were indisposed to do. A meeting of the representatives of the states was called to send to the Macedonian king to ask for a decree, and an order preventing Antipater as Alexander had enjoined. The remonstrance, however, had no effect, and while all were waiting to see what would next happen, and most were gone, the news flew with lightning speed that the arbiter of her destiny was dead.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

Demosthenes

## CHAPTER X.

**THE DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE.—DECLINE OF MACEDONIAN SUPREMACY.**

323 B.C. to 296 B.C.

**1. THE PARTITION.—THE WARS OF ALEXANDER'S GENERALS IN THE EAST.**

It is now necessary to speak briefly of the manner in which the empire that Alexander had constructed was parcelled out among the best and bravest of his generals before proceeding with an account of the progress of affairs in Greece.

On the death of Alexander, the settlement of affairs was assumed by Perdiccas, to whom the king had handed his signet ring when lying on his death-bed. The provinces were then divided among the principal generals, as governors, under the inspection of Perdiccas, as follows:—Perdiccas himself had the district east of the Euphrates; Ptolemy, Egypt and Syria; Eumenes, Cappadocia and Paphlagonia; Antigonus, Phrygia, Lycia, and Pamphylia; Lysimachus, Thrace; and Antipater and Craterus, Macedonia and Greece. Perdiccas claimed the right of being protector of the empire for Philip Aridæus, the half-brother of the late king, who was considered as the heir to the whole of it till it should be known what child Roxana, the widow of Alexander, should bring into the world. Full of ambition, which was concealed, whilst he appeared to defend Aridæus, who was weak both in body and mind, he caused Parysatis and Statira, and many of the relations of Alexander, to be put to death. He issued all his orders, and distributed kingdoms, in the names of Philip III. Aridæus, and the young Alexander, of whom Roxana had been delivered, it is true, but his design to obtain the empire was so well known, that Antigonus, Craterus, who had not yet returned to Europe, and Ptolemy, dreading his ambition, united against him. Perdiccas, therefore, marched against Ptolemy, the most powerful of his rivals, who had been appointed by Alexander governor of Egypt; and he was slain by his own soldiers, who ascribed their defeat to his bad disposition. Eumenes, who had sided with Perdiccas, was attacked by Antigonus and Craterus. A battle ensued, in

which Craterus was killed, and Eumenes was compelled to take refuge in the northern part of Asia Minor (319 B.C.)

Antipater, who assumed the authority of Protector of the empire immediately after the death of Perdiccas, now made

**321** a new partition of the provinces. Ptolemy had  
 B.C. Egypt, Libya, and the parts adjacent; Seleucus, the government of Babylon; Cassander, Antipater's son, Caria; Antigonus, Susiana, in addition to Phrygia, Lycia, and Pamphylia; and Antipater himself, Macedonia and Greece, with the command of the king's household troops. These are the principal generals who established thrones on the ruins of that of Alexander. Soon after this was done, Antipater died (319 B.C.), having attained the mature age of eighty years. He transmitted the guardianship of the empire to Polysperchon, a native of Epirus, and, like himself, an old general of Alexander's empire.

As soon as Antigonus was informed that Antipater was dead, and that Polysperchon had been appointed tutor to the king, he determined to render himself sovereign of Asia, and Cassander, disappointed at not succeeding to his father's position and power, lent him all the aid he could. Polysperchon, therefore, invited all the governors to defend the royal family against Antigonus, and sent against him an army under the command of Eumenes, whose attachment to that family was well known. These two great generals displayed their talents, and every resource of the military art, in two campaigns, which were terminated by a decisive action in favour of Eumenes. After being defeated in most of the engagements

**316** which took place during several campaigns, Anti-  
 B.C. gonus determined to attack Eumenes in his winter quarters, when his troops were dispersed over the whole country. However, the infantry of Eumenes had the superiority, and effectually routed the phalanx of the enemy; but Paucestus, commander of the cavalry, secretly went over to the interests of Antigonus, and left the infantry to combat alone. Antigonus detached a part of his cavalry, and possessed himself of the baggage, women, and children.

The chief part of the loss fell on the Argyraspidæ. These were some of Alexander's veterans, who had lands assigned to them in Asia Minor, and were distinguished by this name from the king having given them bucklers of silver. They had been induced at the beginning of the conflict to espouse



the cause of Polysperchon and Eumenes, but eventually becoming mutinous on account of their loss, Teutamus, who commanded a battalion of men, and who had long inclined to Antigonus, sent to that general, and demanded of him the booty which he had taken. Antigonus replied that he would restore the baggage and all the property, provided they would deliver up Eumenes. The soldiers, therefore, seized Eumenes, and sent him bound to Antigonus, who ordered him to be put to death, and then assumed ascendancy over Asia Minor and all the Asiatic provinces of the empire, including Babylon. Seleucus, however, escaped, and made good his retreat to Ptolemy, in Egypt.

Ptolemy, Lysimachus, Cassander, and Seleucus now entered into a confederacy, by which they were bound to maintain the rights of each other, and to act against Antigonus. The wars between Antigonus and Ptolemy have been described elsewhere,\* and the fortunes of Seleucus.† At length, after various vicissitudes, Lysimachus and Seleucus on the one side, and Antigonus, with his son Demetrius, on the other, each at the head of a powerful army, met near Ipsus, a small town in the province of Phrygia. In this memorable and eventful engagement both armies fought with great bravery, and victory was long and ably contested. But, at length, Antigonus lost his life, and

301

B.C.

Demetrius with difficulty effected his escape at the head of 9000 men. In consequence of this victory the whole empire of Alexander was divided as follows :—Egypt, Libya, Arabia, and Palestine were assigned to Ptolemy ; Macedonia and Greece to Cassander ; Bithynia and Thrace to Lysimachus ; and the remaining territories in Asia, which extended as far as the river Indus, and which were called the kingdom of Syria, were given to Seleucus. The events which had happened in Greece since the death of Alexander, and the struggle that had taken place in the European provinces of Alexander's empire, must now be described.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

First partition of the empire : assumption of the regency by Perdiccas .....	B.C. 323	Quarrel of Perdiccas and Antigonus : death of the Protector, Perdiccas .....	B.C. 321
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\* Vol. i. page 23.

† Vol. i. page 135.

New partition of the empire at Triparadi- sus in Syria .....	B.C. 321	menes and Antipa- ter .....	B.C. 319
Renewed struggle in Asia Minor between Eumenes and Antigo- nus : death of Eu-		League against Antigo- nus : battle of Ipsus : death of Antigonus, and final partition of the empire.....	„ 301

## 2. THE LAMIAN WAR.—STRUGGLE FOR SUPREMACY IN MACEDONIA.

We left the Greeks in a state of anger and excitement, caused by the peremptory order of Alexander for the return of all the Greek exiles to their respective states and cities. The king's death caused no alteration in the state of affairs, for Antipater was determined to enforce the decrees. The Athenians thereupon had resort to arms. Demosthenes was recalled from banishment, and contingents being sent from all parts of Greece which were not kept in awe by the presence of Macedonian troops, an allied Greek army soon took the field and marched towards the confines of Thessaly, where they were joined by a body of Thessalian cavalry. Antipater, who was marching southward, suffered a severe check from the opposing force, and entrenched himself in Lamia on the Spercheins, in Southern Thessaly. Here he maintained himself during the winter, and when the spring came retired to

**322** Macedonia. This gave time for Craterus to join  
B.C. him with a considerable body of veterans, who had  
gone through all the recent campaigns in the East.

Antipater then retraced his steps, and defeated the Athenians and their allies in the decisive battle of Crannon. Once more Greece lay at the mercy of the Macedonians ; the Athenians promptly sent envoys to Antipater, who had entered Boeotia, to implore peace, and this was granted only on condition that they should deliver up Demosthenes and the other orators and statesmen, who, by their harangues, had urged the Greeks to strike another blow for freedom. The men whom the Macedonians had demanded took sanctuary in the temples of the heathen deities in various parts of Greece, but they were dragged from the places in which they had vainly sought refuge and given up to Antipater. Demosthenes avoided death at the hands of his relentless enemies by taking poison at Calauria from a reed at the very moment of his arrest. Thus ended the Lamian War, which was followed by

a change of government in all the democratic cities of Greece, oligarchic governments, composed of men favourable to Macedonian ascendancy, being established, while its opponents were carried away to languish out their lives in distant colonies and other climes.

It will be remembered that Antipater at his death left Polysperchon, the eldest of all Alexander's captains at that time in Europe, the two high offices of protector of the empire, and governor of Macedonia and Greece, neglecting, through delicacy, the claims of his son Cassander. Antipater, after the settlement of the affairs of the empire, which had followed the death of Perdiccas, had brought to Europe Philip III. Aridæus, and Roxana and her son, Alexander IV. Ægus. It was unfortunate for all of them that Antipater did so, as the result subsequently showed. Polysperchon was destitute of wisdom, resolution, and probity, but his son Alexander possessed greater abilities. They recalled Olympias from her retreat in Epirus to assume the guardianship of the royal family, and the restless woman entered eagerly into their views, and all the political intrigues of the time. Philip III. had married his own niece, Eurydice, the grand-daughter of Philip II., and between this woman, who was possessed of considerable ambition and energy, and the ex-queen Olympias a mutual distrust and hatred soon arose. Eurydice determined to place her husband positively at the head of affairs if possible, and had taken advantage of a favourable opportunity to gather troops and call on Cassander, the son of Antipater, who was then in Greece, to come to her aid.

Cassander had bitterly resented the step taken by his father in entrusting the regency to Polysperchon, and a considerable number of the Macedonians were favourable to him, and, therefore, adverse to the regent. Cassander had openly risen in revolt, and to hinder him from obtaining any authority in the Greek cities, Polysperchon published a decree in the king's name restoring liberty to the towns and, among the rest, Athens, and directing the Macedonian garrison in the port of Munychia to be withdrawn, and the democracy to be restored. Nicanor, a man of great experience and a good soldier, who had been sent by Cassander to assume command of the garrison, refused to obey the order, and Phocion, who was then in authority at Athens, would take no steps to expel

Nicanor. Alexander, the son of Polysperchon, then appeared before Athens with a large army, but by delaying to take active measures, gave Cassander time to arrive from Asia Minor with ships and soldiers furnished by Antigonus, and established himself in the Piræus. The exiles who returned in his train proceeded to establish an oligarchy. Phocion fled to Alexander, and was sent by him to Polysperchon, who returned him in chains to the Athenians, only to be put to death by his countrymen, while, shortly after, Cassander was received into the city. Having thus gained a good base of operations in Greece, he proceeded to attack Polysperchon by land and sea, and, by his successes, soon gained over many of the Greek cities to support his cause.

It was at this juncture that he was summoned by Eurydice to Macedonia, where the two heroines, each at the head of an army, seemed determined to hazard the event of a battle. But at the moment when the action began, Olympias presented herself before the soldiers of Eurydice, who, appalled by her majestic air, and the idea that they were about to combat with the widow of Philip, and the mother of Alexander, dropped their arms. They abandoned the unfortunate Eurydice and her husband, whom the cruel Olympias caused to be imprisoned, and afterwards put to death, with many of the relatives and supporters of Antipater.

Cassander having received intelligence of what was going on, hastened into Macedonia with his forces, and obliged Olympias to retire to Pydna, a seaport and well-fortified town. Cassander immediately invested the city by land, while his fleet blocked up the entrance of the harbour. The condition of the besieged soon became truly deplorable. The royal family fed on the flesh of horses; the soldiers, on their dead companions; and the elephants on sawdust. Olympias endeavoured in vain to procure the assistance of Polysperchon; Cassander seized the messenger and disappointed her design. She, therefore, gave up all hopes, and surrendered herself and her army to Cassander. This event determined the fate of all Macedon, which submitted soon after to the conqueror.

Olympias was accused before the assembly of Macedonians, and, without being heard in her defence, condemned to die. Cassander offered her a ship to make her escape to Athens;

but she refused to fly, and demanded to be heard in the assembly of the Macedonians. She was, therefore, delivered up to the relations of those whom she had put to death. Cassander sent Roxana and her son Alexander to Amphipolis, where they were kept in durance. Macedonia was now in the power of Cassander, and Polysperchon retreated with the remainder of the forces at his command to Ætolia, where he maintained himself for some years.

316

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Outbreak of the Lamian War	B.C. 323	sion of Athens : death of Phocion	B.C. 319
Defeat of the Athenians, &c., by Antipater and Craterus at Crannon	„ 322	Civil war in Macedonia	„ 318
Death of Demosthenes by poison. End of the Lamian War	„ 322	Murder of Philip II. and Eurydice by order of Olympias	„ 318
Death of Antipater : Polysperchon regent of the empire	„ 319	Cassander gains supremacy in Macedonia	„ 317
Cassander gains possession of Athens : death of Phocion		Death of Olympias : imprisonment of Roxana and Alexander IV. : Polysperchon retires to Ætolia	„ 316

### 3. CONTINUANCE OF THE WAR IN GREECE.—CASSANDER SUPREME IN MACEDONIA.

While Cassander had been establishing his power in Macedonia, and forcing Polysperchon to take refuge in Ætolia, a convenient position for him, since he could readily obtain supplies and troops from Epirus, Alexander, Polysperchon's son, had kept the field in the Peloponnesus, whither Cassander marched to attack him, stopping on his way to order Thebes, which had been destroyed by Alexander the Great, to be rebuilt, and to recall the Theban exiles from the countries and cities to which they had retired. Prior to this a misunderstanding had arisen between Antigonus and Craterus, and while the latter joined the opponents of Antigonus, the former sent troops to the assistance of Alexander, announcing his intention to restore to the Greek cities the liberties that they had enjoyed in olden times, in order to detach as many of them as possible from Cassander. On the arrival of the troops from Asia, which were commanded by

315

B.C.

IV. was of age. Cassander, however, posed to surrender his power, and he c his mother Roxana to be put to dea chon, who was still in Ætolia, proclaim

309 tinate son of Alexander ; bu  
sum of money from Cassand  
B.C. murdered. Another part c

Polysperchon for the death of Hercule the Peloponnesus to him as his provin

It had been provided at the rece should permit the Greek cities to res ties and forms of government ; but t

308 do, and Ptolemy I. of Egyp  
tion to compel him to kee  
B.C. and Corinth were given up i

no encouragement elsewhere, and wil for the maintenance of the two towns possession, and entering into alliance .

Demetrius, surnamed Poliorcetes,

307 one of the most skilful gene  
time, was now sent over l  
B.C. pretence of restoring freedc

and freeing them from the yoke o taken the Piræus, he entered Athens, trius Phalerus, who had been appoint der, and who, during his continuanc the Athenians with the utmost mildn

Cassander and Polysperchon, and the former took Corinth by assault, and laid siege to Athens. The siege was raised by Demetrius, who caused Cassander to retire, and pursued him in his retreat. A battle was fought near Thermopylæ, in which Cassander was defeated, and the conqueror returned to Athens, which he entered in triumph. In the following year, at the resumption of hostilities, Demetrius made himself master of Corinth, Sicyon, and the greater part of Arcadia, which had remained in the power of Cassander, and he was accepted generally by the Greek states as commander-in-chief of the national army. His successes procured for him the most unlimited flattery and adulation from the Athenians, who pretended to regard him as a demi-god, and instituted religious ceremonies in his honour. He prosecuted the war with vigour against Cassander, took Thessaly from him, and was on the point of entering Macedonia, when he was compelled to rejoin his father in Asia, in consequence of the threatening attitude assumed towards Antigonus by Seleucus and Ptolemy. Hastily concluding a convention with Cassander, which provided for the freedom of the Greek cities, he marched into Asia Minor, through Thrace, and managed to join his father just before the memorable battle of Ipsus, in which a considerable contingent from Macedonia, and a large body from Thrace, fought on the side of Seleucus and Ptolemy. Antigonus, as it has been said, was defeated and fell on the field, but Demetrius drew off the remainder of the army in good order, and retreated on Ephesus. The northern and western provinces of Asia Minor were assigned to Lysimachus, while Seleucus took the rest of the dominion of Antigonus. Demetrius sailed to Athens, intending to resume the war in Greece, but the Greek cities had made humble submission to Cassander immediately after the battle, and the Athenians refused to receive him. On this he retired to the Thracian Chersonese, where he maintained himself until an alliance with Seleucus, who married his daughter Stratonice, gave him hopes of obtaining assistance from the Syro-Greek monarch in subjugating Greece and Macedonia. On his way to Syria by sea, he took Cilicia, a city which belonged to Seleucus, and by refusing to give it up, rendered that monarch hostile to him. The only course open to him, therefore, was to seek support from

304

B.C.

302

B.C.

301

B.C.

der, and the latter, the latter to secure assistance from Demetrius and Pyrrhus, It was at this period that Epirus became pre-eminence in the history of Greece, and it was at this period as a convenient halting-place in the early history, and the previous career of

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

Rebuilding of Thebes, and restoration of Theban exiles by Cassander.....	B.C. 315	and the death of Athens by Demetrius
Coalition between Alexander and Antigonos, who sends troops to Greece: murder of Alexander: general peace .....	„ 311	Death of Alexander
Murder of Roxana and her son, Alexander IV., by Cassander.....	„ 309	Death of Antigonos
Invasion of Greece by Ptolemy I., who takes Corinth and Sicyon ...	„ 308	Antigonos enters Greece

#### CHAPTER XI.

#### ASCENDANCY OF PYRRHUS IN GREECE MACEDONIAN SUCCESSION



wards from the Gulf of Ambracia to Illyria, was anciently divided into a number of petty states and kingdoms, of which the most considerable were Molossia, Thesprotia, and Chaonia. These subsisted independently of each other until the Molossian princes brought the whole country into subjection. At length the inhabitants, who were descended from the Pelasgi, the original occupants of the country, gave up the distinctive names that had been derived from the various tribes, and became blended together under the common appellation of Epirots.

Pyrrhus, or Neoptolennus, the son of Achilles, having distinguished himself at the siege of Troy, resolved, after the Trojan war was over, to fix his residence in Epirus, and eventually retiring thither with Andromache, the widow of the Trojan prince Hector, and the Myrmidons, who had served under him in the war, he took such prudent measures for the establishment of his authority that the natives, after an unsuccessful struggle, relinquished their liberty, and acknowledged him as their sovereign. He was assassinated soon after by Orestes, the king of Argos, in the temple of Delphi, and was succeeded by his son Molossus, from whom Molossia, or Molossia, took its name. As this prince died without issue, the crown devolved on his brother Pielus. In the time of the Persian war Admetus swayed the sceptre, and rendered some essential services to Themistocles the Athenian.

1170  
B.C.

Tharymbas applied himself with unwearied diligence to the encouragement of learning among his subjects, and formed many excellent laws. Plutarch reckons him among the ancient legislators. Alcetas, the next king, experienced many vicissitudes of fortune. After the decease of Alcetas, Neoptolemus and Arybas, two brothers, reigned conjointly, of whom the latter was esteemed on account of the patronage he afforded to literature and learned men.

On the death of Arybas, his nephew, Alexander I. (whose sister, Olympias, married Philip II. of Macedon, and became the mother of Alexander the Great), ascended the throne, and, being fired with military ardour, expected to obtain as great a share of glory in Sicily, Italy, and Africa, as his nephew, Alexander the Great, was acquiring in Persia, and other parts of Asia. In this, how-

340  
B.C.

ever, he was fatally mistaken ; for, after he had obtained two

**326**

B.C.

decisive victories over the Lucanians, Bruttians, and Samnites on behalf of the people of Tarentum, a Greek colony, who had sought his assistance against their enemies, his forces were defeated with great slaughter in the battle of Pandosia, and himself was murdered by the treachery of his guards. Alexander I. was the first who assumed the title of king of Epirus. He was succeeded by Æacides, the son of Arybas, who was deposed by the Epirots for taking part with Olympias against Cassander, but afterwards recalled. Cassander sent his son, Philip, to

**313**

B.C.

invade Epirus, and Æacides being killed in battle, the country fell into his hands. Pyrrhus, the son of Æacides, who was then but five years old, was taken to Illyria and placed under the care of Glaucias, the king or chief of the Taulantii, an Illyrian tribe, by whom he was brought up, and eventually restored to the throne of Epirus about 306 B.C.

During the temporary absence of Pyrrhus from Epirus,

**301**

B.C.

which he had quitted that he might be present at the nuptials of a particular friend in Illyria, the Epirots, at the instigation of Cassander, broke out into open rebellion, chased his friends from court, seized on the royal treasure, and bestowed the diadem on Neoptolemus, who is supposed to have been a son of Alexander I. The unfortunate prince, being thus unexpectedly stripped of his dominions, retired to his brother-in-law, Demetrius, and signalized himself on several occasions, and especially at the battle of Ipsus. At length he married Antigone, the daughter of Berenice, queen of Egypt, who obtained from her husband, Ptolemy, an army to enable her son-in-law to recover the crown of Epirus.

An arrangement was concluded between Pyrrhus and

**297**

B.C.

Neoptolemus by which they were to share the sovereign power ; but barely two years elapsed before Pyrrhus became sole king, by the death of Neoptolemus, the latter having been put to death for alleged conspiracy against the life of Pyrrhus, who, probably, accused him of the act to gain sole possession of the throne. It was at this juncture that the contest broke out between Antipater and Alexander for the crown of Macedonia.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Establishment of Pyrrhus, or Neoptolemus, the son of Achilles, in Epirus .....	B.C. 1170	Pyrrhus restored to the throne by an Illyrian chief, Glaucias, king of the Taulantii .....	B.C. 306
Alexander I. assumes the title of king of Epirus .....	„ 340	Expulsion of Pyrrhus by the Epirots at the instigation of Cassander .....	„ 301
Battle of Pandosia in Italy, and death of Alexander I. ....	„ 326	Restoration of Pyrrhus to the throne, which he shares with Neoptolemus .....	„ 297
Æacides defeated and killed by Philip, son of Cassander. — His son, Pyrrhus, taken to Illyria .....	„ 313	Death of Neoptolemus: Pyrrhus sole king of Epirus .....	„ 295

## 2. THE STRUGGLE FOR THE CROWN IN MACEDONIA.

It has been said that when the fight for the throne of Macedonia began between Antipater and Alexander, the latter sought assistance from Pyrrhus and Demetrius. The “Besieger of Cities,” as he was called, was then engaged in laying siege to Athens, and could not immediately respond to his invitation, but Pyrrhus, who was a thorough soldier, and glad of any excuse for fighting, immediately gave him his support. Antipater was compelled to take refuge with his father-in-law, Lysimachus of Thrace, by whom he was murdered; and Pyrrhus having received Acarnania, Ambracia, and other territories, from Alexander, led back his troops, and established his residence at Ambracia, which he made his capital.

As soon as Athens had surrendered, an event which was brought about by famine, Demetrius marched into Macedonia. Here he took the earliest opportunity of procuring the assassination of Alexander, and when he had justified the act in an address to the troops and people, the Macedonians saluted him as king. Instead of repairing the devastations which the kingdom had suffered, Demetrius immediately engaged in new military enterprises against Greece, Ætolia, Epirus, and Thrace, and at the same time abandoned himself to luxury, vanity, and extreme haughtiness. The war in Greece was marked by the capture of Thebes, after a closely-pressed siege of several months’ duration. The year after Demetrius

of Thrace, but was obliged to return to defend his own country, which had been entered by Pyrrhus. The Epirot king died soon after, and in 289 B.C. Demetrius invaded Macedonia, was driven back and suffered a second attack from Antiochus the year after, which was unsuccessful. Pyrrhus, however, renewed his attempt, in conjunction with Lysimachus, and took possession of Macedonia, while Ptolemy and Seleucus divided the dominions of the other kings. At first Pyrrhus and Lysimachus divided Macedonia between them, but the latter soon expelled Pyrrhus as their king, and he assumed the throne of Epirus, to which Epirus had been annexed. Macedonia was itself annexed to Epirus by Pyrrhus. The reign of Pyrrhus in Macedonia lasted little more than eight months, when he was driven from the throne by Lysimachus, who took possession of Macedonia as well as Thrace.

Demetrius now tells the story of the closing years of his life. When he was expelled from Macedonia, he went into Asia Minor, and, after some time, made an attempt to re-assert his authority in Macedonia, which he had been deprived of. He was, however, surrounded by Seleucus in the hills of Mount Taurus. He made a last effort, and was defeated near Syria; but falling sick of the wounds he received by most of his soldiers, and being abandoned by Seleucus. Contrary to his expectations, Seleucus surrounded him with kindness, which conducted him to a peaceful end. Thus he was closely con-

demetrius, who had the hope that he would be able to re-assert his expectations not only in Macedonia but also in an interview with Seleucus. While immersed in these thoughts, he was surrounded by Seleucus, who was determined to capture him. He was, however, so weak that he was unable to resist, and his life was spared. He lived for several years.

Demetrius may be thus described as having been driven from Macedonia as well as

Thrace; Pyrrhus was fretting in Epirus, eagerly looking for an opportunity of going to war, in which he took unbounded pleasure, and Antigonus Gonatas held those parts of Greece which his father, Demetrius, had subdued. Lysimachus continued undisturbed in the possession of Macedonia for five years, when he fell in battle. Agathoc'es, the son of Lysimachus, had married Lysandra, the daughter of Ptolemy I. of Egypt and his first wife Eurydice, a daughter of Antipater, while Lysimachus himself had married Arsinoe, a daughter of Ptolemy I., and his second wife Berenice. By Eurydice Ptolemy had two sons, Ptolemy Ceraunus and Meleager, but he associated Ptolemy Philadelphus, his son by Berenice, with himself in the government to the prejudice of his elder sons, who quitted Egypt and went to Lysimachus. It happened that Agathocles was an object of dislike to Arsinoe, and by representing that he was concerned in a conspiracy against his father, she induced Lysimachus to put his son to death. Lysandra fled to Seleucus, who, in hopes of annexing Macedonia and the other states of Greece to his other dominions, espoused the cause of the unfortunate princess, and met Lysimachus on the borders of Phrygia. They were the only surviving generals of Alexander, and both fought with great bravery, but the army of Lysimachus was defeated and himself slain. Seleucus passed the Hellespont, and advanced to Lysimachia in Thrace, where he was treacherously murdered by Ptolemy Ceraunus, whom he had generously relieved, and for whose sister's sake he had commenced the war. Ptolemy having done this execrable deed, boldly declared himself king of Macedonia and Thrace, and was acknowledged in that capacity by the people.

281

B.C.

280

B.C.

Not long after a body of several thousand Gauls, leaving their own country, and marching eastwards in search of new settlements, divided into three parts, one of which made an irruption into Macedonia. Ptolemy Ceraunus met them with the whole force of his kingdom, and a battle ensued, in which the Macedonian monarch was defeated and killed. During the first moments of surprise the Macedonians placed Meleager, the brother of Ptolemy, on the vacant throne, but finding him destitute of ability, they deposed him two months after. They then chose Antipater, the grandson of Cassander, who reigned only forty-five days. The crown was then

thus were going to divide Macedonia, the people wished for Pyrrhus as their king and crown. Thus Macedonia, to which Ep

286

B.C.

under Cassander, was itself under Pyrrhus. The reign of Macedonia had lasted little more when he was driven from the throne and became king of Macedonia as well as T

It may be as well now to tell the scenes of the stirring life of Demetrius. Pelled from Macedonia, he went in having raised some troops, made an authority in the provinces, of which he Seleucus and Ptolemy. The former, Demetrius, and pent him up in the de Reduced to a state of despair, he opened a passage for himself into Syria. A violent fever, he was deserted by the rest delivered him into the hands to the principles which he professed him with a numerous guard, which fortress situated in a peninsula, was fined.

For some time Demetrius indulged in being restored to liberty; but finding this not realized, and that he could not obtain it, he resigned to his

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281  
B.C.280  
B.C.

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assigned by the army to Sosthenes, who attacked and defeated the Gauls with the remains of the Macedonian troops, but the barbarians, being reinforced by new comers, returned to the attack, and cut Sosthenes and his troops to pieces.

279

B.C.

After the death of Sosthenes and the evacuation of Macedonia by the Gauls, Antigonus Gonatas, the son of Demetrius, defeated the other competitors for the crown, and assumed the sovereignty of the kingdom. His reign was undisturbed until 273 B.C., when Pyrrhus, who had been fighting in Italy for six years, and had just returned, suddenly attacked him, and wrested the kingdom from him.

273

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Pyrrhus of Epirus supports Alexander in Macedonia.....	B.C. 295	Death of Demetrius in prison in Syria .....	B.C. 283
Demetrius enters Macedonia, murders Alexander, and assumes the government .....	„ 294	Seleucus contemplates invasion of Thrace: death of Lysimachus ..	„ 281
Capture of Thebes by Demetrius .....	„ 292	Murder of Seleucus, and assumption of the throne of Macedonia by Ptolemy Ceraunus ..	„ 280
Invasion of Macedonia by Pyrrhus .....	„ 291	Invasion of the Gauls, and death of Ptolemy Ceraunus in battle ...	„ 280
Expulsion of Demetrius from Macedonia, of which Pyrrhus becomes king .....	„ 287	Sosthenes dies soon after being defeated by the Gauls .....	„ 279
Pyrrhus expelled from Macedonia by Lysimachus of Thrace ...	„ 286	Antigonus Gonatas assumes the crown of Macedonia.....	„ 278

## 3. PYRRHUS IN ITALY.—HIS DEATH.

At the request of the Tarentines, who were then engaged in war with Rome, Pyrrhus had embarked with a numerous force for Italy, a few years after his expulsion from Thrace by Lysimachus, and after narrowly escaping shipwreck, landed at Tarentum amidst the acclamations of the people. The Tarentines, however, soon perceived that he whom they had honoured as a deliverer was determined to become their master. In the meantime Publius

280

B.C.



Valerius Lævinus, the Roman consul, committed great depredations on the country of the Lucanians, the allies of the Tarentines, and waited in the neighbourhood for the arrival of Pyrrhus. The king, therefore, ordered him to disband his troops, and to appeal to him as umpire between the Romans and the Tarentines ; but Lævinus sending a haughty replication to this command, both parties marched to the banks of the Siris, and encamped opposite to each other. An engagement ensued, which, after a most obstinate resistance, terminated in the defeat of the Romans. However, Pyrrhus lost so many valiant officers and private men, that he was heard to say he was both conqueror and conquered, and that such another victory would entirely ruin him.

Anxious to reap all the advantages of this victory, the king of Epirus rushed like a resistless torrent among the Roman allies, and reduced the greatest part of Campania ; but he formed no establishment in that country, and returned to Tarentum, where he terminated the campaign. Whilst he remained in that city Cineas, his prime minister, was sent with proposals of peace to the Roman senate ; but these proving unsuccessful, both parties made preparations for another campaign. A general engagement ensued near Asculum, in which the Roman consul Decius was killed, and Pyrrhus dangerously wounded ; but victory remained doubtful, even at the termination of the battle. Whilst the Romans were preparing for another engagement Nicias, the king's physician, offered, for a certain reward, to despatch his master by poison. Incensed at so infamous a proposal, they cautioned Pyrrhus to avoid the perfidy of his attendants ; and the king, deeply affected by this act of generosity, immediately released, without ransom, all the prisoners he had taken. The Romans, however, sent back an equal number of Samnites and Tarentines.

The Syracusans fortunately supplied Pyrrhus with a pretext for quitting Italy, as they requested his assistance against the Carthaginians. At first he obtained some success ; but being afterwards abandoned by the Sicilians, and hard pressed by the Carthaginians, he left Sicily, and returned once more to Italy to assist the Tarentines. An engagement ensued near Beneventum, in which twenty thousand Epirots were cut to pieces, the Romans remaining sole masters of the field, with eight elephants,

279  
B.C.

278  
B.C.

277  
B.C.

**275** and 1200 prisoners. Overwhelmed with confusion  
 at this signal defeat, Pyrrhus set sail for Epirus  
 B.C. with 8000 foot and 500 horse, after spending six  
 years in Italy and Sicily without obtaining any solid advantage.

**273** He soon after marched a combined army of Epirots  
 B.C. and Gauls into Macedonia, ravaged the country,  
 defeated Antigonus Gonatas, and took possession of  
 his kingdom.

From Macedonia the warlike king of Epirus marched into  
 Peloponnesus, whither Antigonus Gonatas had retired. He  
 now sought to render himself master of Greece, as well as  
 Macedonia; and possibly he might have succeeded had he  
 lived. After being foiled, however, in an attack on Sparta,  
 whither he had proceeded to take part with the citizens, who  
 were opposed to their king Areus, he was invited by one of  
 the principal citizens of Argos to espouse his cause against  
 the opposite faction, which was supported by Antigonus  
 Gonatas, and he imprudently entered that city. The conflict

**272** raged with dreadful fury, and the streets were covered  
 B.C. with dead bodies, and deluged with blood.

The king of Epirus having taken off his helmet, a  
 woman threw a tile on his head from the roof of a house, and  
 killed him on the spot. His head was severed from his body  
 and carried to Antigonus, who ordered the corpse of his fallen  
 foe to be buried with all the honour due to so great a soldier.

It is as well to say here what little remains to be said about  
 Epirus. Pyrrhus was succeeded by his son Alexander II.,  
 who tried to reduce the kingdom of Macedon, where Anti-  
 gonus Gonatas had resumed the crown, but was repulsed.  
 Ptolemy, his son and successor, was a prince of promising  
 expectations, but died at an early age, and left the crown to  
 his son Pyrrhus, who, after a short reign, was treacherously  
 murdered by the Ambracians. Deidamia, the daughter of  
 Pyrrhus II., next ascended the throne; but the Epirots, dis-  
 daining to live under the government of a woman, caused her  
 to be assassinated in the temple of Diana. The royal family  
 of Pyrrhus being now extinct, they formed themselves into a  
 republic, which was governed by annual magistrates, chosen

**167** in the general assembly of the nation. This form of  
 B.C. government subsisted till Epirus was conquered by  
 Æmilius Paulus, who destroyed its considerable  
 towns, and sold most of the inhabitants into slavery.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Pyrrhus goes to Italy to assist the Tarentines B.C.	280	Invasion of Macedonia, and expulsion of Antigonus Gonatas by Pyrrhus.....	B.C. 756
Victory of Pyrrhus on the Siris .....	280	Invasion of Greece by Pyrrhus : his death at Argos.....	272
Romans defeated by Pyrrhus at Asculum ..	279	Epirus conquered and completely reduced to subjection by the Romans .....	167
Pyrrhus in Sicily .....	277		
Pyrrhus defeated at Beneventum .....	275		
Return of Pyrrhus to Macedonia.....	274		

## KINGS OF EPIRUS.

Alexander I.....	B.C. 340	Pyrrhus I. alone .....	B.C. 296
Æacides.....	326	Alexander II. ....	272
Cassander of Macedon ..	313	Ptolemy.....	(?)
Pyrrhus I.....	306	Pyrrhus II. ....	(?)
Neoptolemus.....	301	Deidamia .....	(?)
Pyrrhus I. and Neoptolemus .....	297	Republic founded.....	(?)

## CHAPTER XII.

## RISE OF ROMAN ASCENDANCY IN GREECE, AND ITS CONQUEST BY THE ROMANS.

272 B.C. to 146 B.C.

1. AFFAIRS IN GREECE.—THE ÆTOLIAN AND ACHÆAN LEAGUES.  
—ATTEMPTED REVOLUTION IN SPARTA.

WHEN Antigonus Gonatas appeared to be firmly seated on the throne of Macedonia, and Pyrrhus was sailing westward to measure his strength with the Romans in Italy, the states of Greece were endeavouring to repair the disasters of past years by reviving or extending the confederacies, to which the names of the Ætolian League and the Achæan League were respectively given. The Ætolian League, which had been established for a considerable period, and was now striving to extend its influence, especially in Northern Greece, did good service in aiding in the expulsion of the Gauls from the country in 279 B.C. The Achæan League was now being resuscitated by some of the cities

which had belonged to the previous confederacy, so called, which had been dissolved about 323 B.C. The story of each has been separately told, and it merely remains to trace the course of Greek history from the time of the death of Pyrrhus to the final conquest of Greece by the Romans, and its formation into a Roman province.

About 277 B.C. Athens and Sparta, by means of funds supplied by the king of Egypt, attacked Ætolia, under the pretence that some of the Ætolians had attempted to cultivate the Sacred Crissæan Plain. It was in reality an effort to strike a blow at Antigonus Gonatas, with whom the Ætolians were closely allied, but they failed completely in their object, and suffered a humiliating defeat at the hands of their adversaries. Antigonus Gonatas never lost his footing in the peninsula, and, after the death of Pyrrhus, effected its complete subjugation by conquering some parts of it, and entering into alliance with others in which parties favourable to his interests were in the ascendant. Sparta alone, by the aid of Egypt, was strong enough to sustain the contest with Macedonia, but her rulers were not disposed to continue it after

288

B.C.

Athens, wearied out by the long siege to which she had been subjected, surrendered to Antigonus, who placed garrisons in the harbours of Piræus and Munychia, but allowed Athens itself to retain its freedom, unrestrained by the presence of foreign troops. Thus matters continued for some years, until some vigour was infused into the operations of the Achæan League (which had maintained its existence throughout all the efforts of Antigonus to stamp it out at first, and then grown and thriven as soon as he began to regard it with indifference and contempt) by Aratus, who after taking possession of his native city, Sicyon, and uniting it to the League in 251 B.C., had been elected its *strategus*, or commander-in-chief and president, in 245 B.C.

239

B.C.

By the time that Antigonus Gonatas, wearied by the wars and vicissitudes that had marked his life, had passed to his rest, Aratus had succeeded in bringing Corinth and Megara, with other states of the Peloponnesus, within the circle of the Achæan League.

The state of Greece—and in speaking now of Greece Macedonia must be included as well as Epirus, which had long exercised considerable influence on Greek affairs—was, at the death of Antigonus, much as follows:—The power of

Epirus was as nothing ; Macedon, as before, was, by reason of the age and listlessness of her king, comparatively indifferent to the course things might be taking ; the Ætolian League had absorbed Bœotia, and most of the states of Northern Greece, with Elis and a part of Arcadia ; while the Achæan League comprised Sicyon, Corinth, Achaia, and Megara, with many cities of Arcadia and Argos. Athens remained under the power of Macedonia, and Sparta and Acarnania remained unfettered and unpledged to any particular course of action by giving their adhesion to either of the existing confederacies. Messene also held aloof from the Achæan League, and did not join it until after Athens and Sparta had taken their places in the ranks of the cities of which it was composed.

Prior to this an attempt had been made in Sparta to restore the simplicity which had previously marked the manners and customs of its Dorian population, and to get rid of the rapidly-increasing fondness for wealth and ease which had long been eating like a canker at the heart of the state.

The Proclid king, Eudamidas II., was succeeded by his son, Agis IV., a prince of great promise, who had for his colleague the Eurysthenid king, Leonidas II., the son of Cleonymus, the man who had called on 244  
Pyrrhus of Epirus to interfere in the affairs of the B.C.  
Peloponnesus. Leonidas having passed several years at the brilliant and voluptuous court of Seleucus, had brought with him to Sparta a taste for luxury, which had been imbibed by all who, like him, had gathered wealth by taking service under the kings of the East. On the other hand, Agis, at the age of twenty, renounced pleasure, lived like an old Spartan, and determined to attempt the re-establishment of the ancient discipline.

Opytadeus, one of the Ephors, thought that, under such a king as Leonidas, an opportunity offered of repealing the law of Lycurgus, which deprived the citizens of the liberty of disposing of their lands by gift, sale, or testament. Though the infraction of this law had not been authorised, it had been continually violated, and the lands were in the possession of about a hundred families. However, when Opytadeus brought forward his motion in favour of the rich, Lysander, another Ephor, who in this matter acted according to the design of Agis, proposed that all debtors should be discharged by an act of insolvency, that there should be a new distribution of

the lands, and that, as the number of ancient families had decreased, the vacancy should be supplied by a kind of adoption of the youth of the adjacent countries, who should be subjected to the exercises, diet, and discipline of Lycurgus.

This was followed by a prosecution against Leonidas for having married a foreign woman, and that king sought an asylum in the temple of Minerva, upon which his son-in-law, Cleombrotus, demanded and obtained the crown. Agis and Cleombrotus immediately agreed with respect to the abolition of debts and the division of lands; but, on the suggestions of Agesilaus, the uncle of Agis, whose estate was burdened with debt, they resolved to attempt only one operation at a time, and to burn the obligations first. The artful Agesilaus, who now possessed his large and valuable estate unincumbered with debts, found means to defer the division of the lands; and a war taking place between the Ætolian and Achæan Leagues, Agis was obliged to leave Lacedæmon, in order to give active support to the latter, with which he had entered into alliance. During his absence, Agesilaus had secured his

241 appointment as one of the Ephors, and was guilty  
B.C. of so many acts of violence and injustice, and  
notably that of deferring the division of the lands,  
that the people expelled him, and recalled Leonidas. When  
Agis returned, and found that all was going against him, and  
contrary to his plans, he took refuge in the temple of  
Minerva, but being betrayed by some of his friends, he was  
240 thrown into prison, condemned and put to death,  
B.C. together with his mother, Agesistrata, and his  
grandmother, Archidamia. Cleombrotus was saved  
by the intercession of his wife, Chelonis, who was the daughter  
of Leonidas, and the widow of Agis was married against  
her will to Cleomenes, the son of Leonidas. It was very  
shortly after these events that Antigonus Gonatas died  
(239 B.C.).

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Revival of the Achæan League .....	B.C. 280	Surrender of Athens to Antigonus Gonatas, who obtains complete supremacy in the peninsula .....	B.C. 263
War between Athens and Sparta and the Ætolian League .....	„ 277		

Capture of Sicyon and its junction to the Achæan League by Aratus .....	B.C. 251	War between Ætolian and Achæan Leagues, in which Agis IV. takes part .....	B.C. 241
Aratus elected Strategus of the Achæan League ..	245	Return of Agis IV. to Sparta, and his trial and death .....	240
Accession of Agis IV. of Sparta, and his contemplated reforms ..	244	Death of Antigonus Gonatas .....	239

2. QUARRELS OF THE GREEK LEAGUES.—PHILIP V. OF MACEDON.  
—ROMAN INTERFERENCE IN GREECE.

Demetrius II. succeeded his father, Antigonus Gonatas, on the throne of Macedonia. He imitated the mild virtues rather than the military talents of the last king. His reign was tranquil, except as far as regards some conflicts with the Ætolian League; and he died, after having occupied the throne about ten years, deservedly regretted by his subjects. During his reign Megalopolis, and the remainder of the Arcadian cities, had entered the Achæan League, and at its close Aratus persuaded his successor, Antigonus Doson, to withdraw the Macedonian garrisons that had been so long maintained on the Piræus, and Munychia and Athens immediately after joined the league. The close of his reign was, therefore, marked by another step towards the independence and unity of Greece, which, however, as it subsequently turned out, was taken in vain. Antigonus Doson was the brother of Antigonus Gonatas, and assumed the government at the death of Demetrius II., because Philip, the son of that monarch, was too young to reign. He was a good soldier, and an able politician, and under his government Macedonia prospered. He made no attempt to re-assert Macedonian supremacy in Greece, but was a steadfast friend and supporter of the Achæan League and Aratus throughout his reign.

On the death of Leonidas II., in 236 B.C., his son Cleomenes ascended the Spartan throne. He possessed an ardent passion for glory, united with great temperance and simplicity of manners. The early part of his reign was distinguished by several victories over the Achæan League, for unlike Agis, he was disposed to regard Aratus as a rival, and the league as antagonistic to Sparta, and likely to deprive her of power in the

**Peloponnesus.** His successes caused him to be feared by the Ephors, who were apprehensive that the splendour of his victories would give him too much influence with the people. That they had reason to fear him the result proved, for having signalised himself by achievements worthy of a Lacedæmonian prince, he returned towards Sparta, and sent before him a body of troops to rid him of the Ephors, four of whom were killed, and the fifth made his escape.

On the morrow, Cleomenes entered the forum, and ordered all the chairs of the Ephors to be removed, except one, which he reserved for himself. He then  
**226** apologised to the people for what he had done,  
 B.C. showed the necessity of restoring the institutions of Lycurgus, and declared that he would allow himself only one violent measure more, which was the banishment of eighty citizens, whose names he caused to be fixed up. He was the first to deliver up his whole property to the public stock, in which he was followed by his father-in-law and other friends. In dividing the lands, he assigned shares to all whom he had banished, promising to recall them as soon as was consistent with the public safety. To show his dislike to tyranny, he associated with him his brother Euclidas in the kingdom. He restored the ancient Spartan custom of educating youth, of eating in public, and of performing their exercises together. With respect to luxury, he gave the example which he prescribed. He possessed neither rich habits nor costly furniture, but in everything he preserved the ancient austerity.

Unhappily Cleomenes abandoned the career of reform that he had thus initiated at home to renew the  
**223** war against the Achæan League, and after experi-  
 B.C. encing some severe defeats from the Spartans, Aratus summoned Antigonus Doson to his aid. A Macedonian army thereupon entered Greece, and, notwithstanding the exertions and abilities of their king, the Lacedæmonians, enfeebled by former wars, were defeated by the allies. Cleomenes had re-

course to Ptolemy III., king of Egypt, who assisted him on his sending his mother and children as hostages. He was, however, completely defeated by  
**221** Antigonus and Aratus in the battle of Sellasia, and obliged to  
 B.C. fly from Sparta and take refuge in Egypt, where he and his followers were imprisoned by Ptolemy IV., who had just ascended the throne. As they de-



spaired of escaping, they killed each other; and Ptolemy caused the mother of Cleomenes and the remainder of his family to be put to death soon after. By this disaster the power of Sparta in Greece was almost extinguished. Antigonus Doson returned to Macedonia to repel the Illyrians, who had taken advantage of his absence to invade the country. He was successful, but died in the following year. After the fatal battle with Antigonus, Sparta fell into the hands of the Macedonians, who suffered the Lacedæmonians to elect Agesipolis, the grandson of Cleombrotus, and Lycurgus, for their kings.

On the death of Antigonus Doson, his ward, the son of his nephew Demetrius II., ascended the throne of Macedonia as Philip V. At this time he was only 220  
B.C. seventeen years of age, but he made up for any deficiency on the score of his youth by his intelligence, affability, munificence, and attention to the duties of his station. He had not been long on the throne when another "Social War" broke out in Greece. This contest lasted three years, and was provoked by an attack of the Ætolian League upon Messenia. Aratus and the troops of the Achæan League hastened to its assistance, but were completely defeated, and Aratus immediately concluded an alliance with Philip V., by whom the Ætolians were driven back.

It was at this juncture that the Romans began to exercise an active interference in the affairs of Greece. As far back as 229 B.C., they had been compelled to take steps to repress piracy on the Illyrian coast, for the protection of their commerce, and by the connivance of Demetrius of Pharos, an island on the seaboard of Illyria, they had occupied Corcyra, with Epidamnus and other Corcyran colonies on the mainland of Epirus. An independent government, under Roman protection, was established in Corcyra, and Demetrius of Pharos was rewarded for his treachery by some of the Illyrian territory which had been taken from Teuta, the reigning queen. Soon after this the Romans sent ambassadors to Greece, who were present at the celebration of the Isthmian games.

The kings of Macedonia, especially Antigonus Gonatas, had given considerable encouragement to the Illyrians to prosecute their piratical attacks on Roman vessels, and this had caused an ill feeling towards Macedonia on the part of Rome. Depending on his alliance with Macedonia, 219  
B.C. and thinking that the Romans, who were then en-

gaged in a life-and-death-struggle with Carthage, would have no time to attend to his delinquencies, Demetrius again began to attack the Roman traders, on which the senate sent a fleet to Illyria and drove him out of his dominions. He took refuge with Philip V., and by his representations induced that

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B.C.

monarch to make peace with the Ætolians, and to enter into an alliance with Hannibal and the Carthaginians. The Carthaginian general, however, derived little assistance from Philip, for fearing to send a fleet across the Adriatic Sea to make a descent on Italy, and thus create a diversion in Hannibal's favour, he contented himself with attacking the Roman colonies on the coast of Epirus.

214

B.C.

The news of the fall of Oricum soon brought a Roman fleet to the assistance of the threatened cities. Oricum was re-taken, and Philip was compelled to raise the siege of Apollonia and retire to his own dominions. The cessation of hostilities with Ætolia had brought about a misunderstanding between Philip and the states of the Achæan League, and when Aratus remonstrated

213

B.C.

with him for his subsequent conduct to these states whom he affected to regard as tributaries rather than as allies, Philip caused him to be put out of the way by poison. The year after (212 B.C.) Tarentum was taken by Hannibal, and the Romans fearing that this success might tempt Philip to send troops to Italy, determined to assist the Ætolians rather than the Achæans—for both had applied to them for assistance against the king of Macedonia, whose design of rendering himself paramount in Greece was only too evident—and a combination was formed against Philip by Rome, Ætolia, Athens, Sparta, Messene, Elis, and all the states that were not at the time strictly within the Achæan League, which was afterwards joined by Attalus, king of Per-

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B.C.

gamus. The war was commenced shortly after, and the coasts of Epirus and Macedonia were laid waste from time to time for several years, the towns on the seaboard taken and burnt, and the inhabitants sold into slavery.

Meanwhile the Achæan League had not relinquished its attacks on Ætolia. Philopœmen, a native of Megalopolis, who was born in 252 B.C., and had fought at Sellasia, was appointed commander of the Achæan cavalry in 210 B.C., and two years later strategus of the League, in which capacity he

proved himself to be a worthy and efficient successor of Aratus. Sparta had at this time fallen into the hands of the despot Machanidas, who had expelled Lycargus from the city after he himself had compelled his colleague, Agesipolis, to fly, and taken the government into his own hands. Machanidas had abolished the office of Ephor, and rendered himself absolute, and, as it has been shown, had ranged himself on the side of Ætolia and Rome against Philip V. of Macedon. Soon after his accession to power as strategus, Philopoemen, who had been industriously organising the troops of the league, met Machanidas and his allies at Mantinea, and defeated the Spartans and Ætolians, with heavy loss, cutting down Machanidas with his own hand. After this victory he prosecuted the war against the Ætolians with unremitting energy, and, the year after, the Ætolians, wearied with their losses, and alive to the fact that the Roman alliance would bring no ultimate good to Greece, made peace with Philip and the Romans, who were about to carry the war with Carthage into Carthaginian territory, also concluded a treaty with him, on the understanding that he was to abstain from interference with their allies, and to give no assistance to Carthage.

208

B.C.

207

B.C.

205

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Withdrawal of Macedonian garrison from Athens, which joins the Achæan League for a time .....	B.C. 222	Death of Antigonus Doseon and Cleomenes : outbreak of Second Social War, and accession of Philip V. of Macedonia .....	B.C. 220
War between Sparta and Achæan League : removal of the Ephors, and restoration of the laws of Lycargus by Cleomenes .....	„ 226	Corcyra and part of Illyria occupied by the Romans .....	„ 220
First Roman embassy in Greece .....	„ 228	Defeat of Demetrius of Pharos and the Illyrians by the Romans ..	„ 219
Renewal of the war with the Achæan League by Cleomenes .....	„ 223	Close of Social War by withdrawal of Philip V. ..	„ 217
Defeat of the Spartans and Cleomenes at Sellasia by Antigonus Doseon and Aratus ...	„ 221	Alliance between Philip V. and Hannibal .....	„ 216
		Attack on Oricum and Apollonia by Philip V., who is compelled to retire by the Romans ..	„ 214

Death of Aratus, who is poisoned by order of Philip V..... B.C. 213	Mechanidas, tyrant of Sparta, and his Ætolian allies defeated at Mantineæ by Philopoc- men..... B.C. 207
Confederation of Rome, Ætolia, and other Greek states against Philip V. .... „ 211	Ætolians conclude peace with the Macedonian king, Philip V..... „ 206
Philopœmen elected stra- tegus of the Achæan League ..... „ 208	Romans conclude peace with Philip V..... „ 206

3. RENEWAL OF WAR BETWEEN ROME AND MACEDONIA.—PRO-  
TECTORATE OF GREEK STATES ASSUMED BY ROME.—DEATH  
OF PHILIP V.

Anxious to effect the withdrawal of the Romans from the coast on any terms, Philip V. had consented to a treaty, the terms of which he had no intention of keeping. He entered into alliance with Antiochus the Great, who was at that time contemplating an attack on Egypt, which had been placed under the protection of Rome; he sent a body of troops to Carthage; he attacked Attalus of Pergamus and the Rhodians, who were allies of Rome, and he commenced fresh intrigues to render himself supreme in Greece, and sought the assassination of Philopœmen when he exposed his plans to the Greeks. Philopœmen, however, escaped his vengeance, and the attempt on his life only served to give him greater influence throughout Greece. At this time Sparta was under the dominion of Nabis, one of the most ruthless tyrants ever known, who had seized the government on the death of Mechanidas. This man endeavoured to re-assert the ascendancy of Sparta over Messene, but he was foiled in his attempt by Philopœmen, who, finding that there was no immediate necessity for his services at home, and being relieved of his post as strategus of the Achæan League, went to the assistance of the Gortynians in Crete, and fought on their behalf in the war then raging in that island.

Justly annoyed at Philip's duplicity, the Romans, after persuading the Greeks to make common cause against him with Attalus and the Rhodians, if he persisted in his aggressive acts, sent envoys to him when he was busily engaged in subjugating Thrace, to insist on his abandonment of all ulterior measures against the Greek states, and that the Roman senate should adjudicate

in the dispute between him on the one side, and Attalus and the Romans on the other. Philip received the ambassadors with contemptuous indifference, and returned an evasive answer to their demands, but one that would scarcely warrant a declaration of war on the part of the Romans. Philip, however, immediately after the departure of the envoys, attacked Athens on some trifling pretext, and the Roman senate promptly took occasion of this overt act of hostility against Rome to declare war against him.

Accordingly, in the following year, a powerful fleet and army was sent to commence operations on the coast of Epirus, and proceed to the invasion of Macedonia. Athens, still besieged by Philip, was relieved, and Chalcis **200**  
carried by assault. This was followed by a descent **B.C.**  
on Attica by the Macedonians, who carried fire and sword throughout the whole state, although they could not take Athens.

The following year was almost entirely occupied by both sides in military manœuvres. No decisive blow was struck by either party, but the Romans, by good diplomacy, prevented Antiochus the Great of Syria from lending any assistance to Philip. The year after Philip advanced **198**  
into Illyria, and took up a position near the Ro- **B.C.**  
mans, who were covering Apollonia. The Roman consul, Titus Quinctius Flaminius, after refusing Philip's overtures for peace, attacked him, and after some hard fighting, compelled him to fall back and enter Macedonia, or rather make dispositions for the defence of his southern frontier, which bordered on Thessaly. All the states of Greece, except that of Acarnania, now hastened to the support of the Romans, and even the cities of the Achæan League took part in the siege of Corinth, which was held by the Macedonians. Finding that all his power in Greece was virtually lost, Philip again tried to make terms with the Romans, but his overtures were refused on his declining to give up Corinth and Chalcis, which he had re-occupied, and to confine himself for the future to Macedonia. Both sides now eagerly prepared for the conflict, and the Romans, pressing northwards, encountered Philip, who had entered Thessaly, at Cynocéphalæ, near Scotussa. **197**  
**B.C.**  
An obstinate battle ensued, in which Philip was completely beaten. He was compelled then to give up all claims on Greece, in which the supremacy

of Macedonia, which had endured since the battle of Chaeronea in 338 B.C., was finally brought to an end, and to keep within the limits of his own territories. The garrisons in Corinth and Chalcis were withdrawn, and the towns surrendered. Philip's army and fleet were reduced to the lowest amount, sufficient for the defence of his territories against his neighbours; and he was forced to agree not to make war without the permission of Rome, and to pay a thousand

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B.C.

talents for the expenses of the war. The peace was followed by the formal proclamation of the freedom of the Greek cities at the Isthmian games; and once more Greece was apparently free and unfettered, and at liberty to take her own course without interference on the part of Macedonia, or any foreign power. Flaminius, who had brought the war with Philip to so glorious a termination, remained in Greece two years to assist the Greeks in effecting the internal organisation of the country, and then returned to Rome.

While the war in Greece had been going on, Antiochus the Great had recommenced his conquests on the coast of Asia Minor and the islands of the Ægean Sea. He had even entered Thrace, to which he laid claim by reason of its conquest by his ancestor Seleucus in 281 B.C., and which Philip V. had been compelled to abandon by the Romans. Flaminius had contented himself with representing that continuance in the course he had adopted might involve him in war with Rome; but Antiochus, finding that words were not followed by deeds, went steadily on with the work that he had taken in hand, and, besides seeking the support of the states of Asia Minor by threats or bribes, received Hannibal at his court, and planned with him a scheme for future operations against Rome.

As soon as Flaminius turned his back on Greece, the Ætolians, because they had fought on the winning side at Cyncephala, at once assumed the lead in the affairs of Greece, and invited Philip V. to place himself at the head of a general

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B.C.

rising against the Roman alliance in concert with Antiochus. The first demonstration in favour of Antiochus was made by Nabis at Sparta, but it was soon suppressed by the forces of the Achæan League under Philopœmen, who had returned from Crete, and assumed his old position as its strategus. In the following year the Æto-

hians entered Sparta and seized the city, after putting Nabis to death, for his submission to Philopœmen, it must be presumed, and his hesitation to carry out the policy which had been prescribed for him by his allies. The Ætoliæ, however, were soon driven out by Philopœmen, who had marched to the assistance of the citizens, and Sparta, to avoid reprisals from Rome for the support she had given the Ætoliæ, immediately gave in her adhesions to the Achæan League, and Gythium, Las, and all her seaports were immediately occupied by the federal troops. The Ætoliæ, foiled in their attack on Sparta, managed to seize the Thessalian fortress Demetrias, and they would have taken Chalcis, too, had not Flaminius previously arrived before it with the Roman fleet.

The situation in Greece at this moment was as follows :—The Ætoliæ, with the people of Bœotia, Elis, and Messene, were in arms to support Antiochus, who had landed in Thessaly with a comparatively small force of 10,000 infantry and 500 cavalry, and established himself at Demetrias. The Achæans, with the Spartans and Athenians, as well as the Thessalians, were earnest supporters of the Romans, of whom about 40,000, under the consul Manius Acilius Glabrio, had landed in Epirus, and Philip, who greatly disliked Antiochus for his occupation of Thrace, and for assuming the part of arbiter of the destinies of Greece, which he conceived belonged to him by right, also supported the Romans, and sent troops to the allied forces, which were gathering for the war. Hostilities were commenced as soon as the Romans had completed their preparations, and Antiochus was totally defeated near Thermopylæ, and few of the men under his command lived to return to Asia, the king himself escaping with difficulty. Greece, or rather that part of Greece which was comprised in the Ætolian League, submitted to the Romans after a protracted resistance to the imperious dictates of the Roman senate, which was prolonged in vain for several months.

It might have been supposed that the Greeks were so weary of war that they would gladly have accepted the conditions imposed by the Romans, and carefully observe them for a few years at least. It was not so, however, for the Ætoliæ immediately broke the terms of the truce that they

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B.C.

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B.C.

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B.C.

had accepted but a few short months before, and the Romans were obliged to send an expedition against them under Marcus Fulvius Nobilior. This resulted in the complete discomfiture of the *Ætolians*, who were compelled to make a most humiliating peace with Rome, pay the expenses of the brief war, and surrender *Cephalonia* and other possessions. The Romans also took possession of *Zacynthus* and other Greek islands which gave offence to the *Achæans*, to whom the island belonged, and who had steadily supported Rome in the war, and to Philip, who writhed at seeing the Romans, who now held all the *Ionian Islands*, to use their modern general name, and thereby were in a position to control the progress of affairs in Greece just as they pleased—the position which he coveted for himself, and which he had been labouring to attain for years.

Just at this time the Spartans, who had lost their seaports, made an attempt to surprise *Las*, one of their old harbours, but were prevented by the *Achæan* troops, who ordered them to deliver up the instigators of the attempt. They refused, and *Philopœmen* entered *Lacedæmonia* with an army, while the Spartans appealed to *Fulvius*. The consul advised both parties to submit their differences to the senate, which was done, and on the return of the envoys *Philopœmen*, imagining that the reply conveyed a decision in favour of the league, led his troops to *Sparta*, and having occupied it, pulled

down the walls, and abolished the laws of *Lycurgus*. This drew on the *Achæan League* the reproof of the senate, who thought that the Spartans had been treated with undue severity. It was considered best, however, that *Sparta* should continue in the League, but that an amnesty should be declared, and all political exiles permitted to return. The fate of *Philopœmen* was a sad one.

Five years after the reduction of *Sparta* *Messene* threw off its alliance with the *Achæan league*, and the old strategus, who had reached the age of seventy, prepared to bring it back by force of arms. He was unfortunately taken prisoner, having fallen from his horse in a cavalry skirmish, and carried to *Messene*, where he was forced to drink poison. His death was promptly avenged by the *Achæans*, who marched at once in force on *Messene*, and compelled the *Messenians*, who opened their gates at their approach, to give up those who suggested and carried out the



crime. The corpse of Philopœmen was burnt, and his ashes carried to Megalopolis, and there buried.

During this time Philip V., annoyed with the Romans for giving Thrace to the king of Pergamus after the conclusion of the war with Antiochus, remained in Macedonia in a state of sulky resentment, biding his time to commence a new war against the Romans. The senate had awarded him Demetrias, and other parts of Thessaly which had been seized by Antiochus, but he was not contented with this, and the Thessalians, who cordially hated him, were constantly making complaints against him at Rome. This was also done by the various parties in the Greek states, to whom Philip was equally obnoxious, and as the decisions of the senate were almost invariably given against him, his resentment against the Romans was continually increasing, and he began to make secret preparations for a renewal of the war. He had been obliged, after his defeat at Cynocephalæ, to send his younger son, Demetrius, to Rome as a hostage; but finding that Philip kept faith with them, the Romans, who had treated Demetrius with the utmost kindness, sent him back, filled with esteem and affection for them, and a zealous supporter of their policy with regard to Greece.

Persæus, the elder son of Philip, was illegitimate, but, notwithstanding this, he hoped to ascend the throne of Macedon. Demetrius endeavoured to soften the resentment of his father against the Romans; and Philip was induced to believe that this son was more attached to these republicans than to him. Persæus, who was gloomy, artful, and malicious, endeavoured to strengthen these suspicions against Demetrius, who was of a cheerful, bland, insinuating disposition, and adorned with every virtue. Philip having plundered the city of Maronea, in Thrace, contrary to the command of the Romans, was summoned to justify his conduct before the senate. He, therefore, sent his son Demetrius to apologise to the Romans; but when the young prince heard the articles of impeachment read against Philip, he was so affected, that he was unable to utter a word in the defence of his father. The senators encouraged him to read the notes, which he had brought for the justification of the king, whose excuses were accepted; and Demetrius returned with a ratification of a treaty, which contained this express clause, that Philip owed it entirely to their regard for his son.

however, in a little time, was apprised of the proceeding, and that the letters he answered the purposes of Perseus. B.C. this information, he fell into a net which differed little from madness, and which in the end brought to his existence.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

War declared against Philip V. in consequence of his attack on Athens .....	B.C. 201	poemen, and Achæan League
Commencement of the war: Attica laid waste by Philip .....	" 200	Defeat of near Thermopylæ
Repulse of Philip before Apollonea .....	" 198	Resistance of Romans and League to its enforcement .....
Total defeat of Philip's army by the Romans at Cynocephalæ .....	" 197	Rebellion of the League for pressed men, who the laws of
Proclamation of freedom of Greek cities by Flaminius .....	" 196	Revolt of M. death of by poison
Movement of Ætolia and Sparta in favour of Antiochus the Great: Nabis conquered by Philopoemen .....	" 193	Execution of son of P suspicion plicity w
Nabis put to death by the Ætolians: Sparta .....		Death of P

Perseus assumed the reins of government on the death of his father. The first measures of his administration were remarkably mild. He affected a strict regard to justice ; assumed an air of benignity and gentleness, and sat daily to hear causes, on which he generally decided with prudence and discernment. He also sent an embassy to the Romans, entreating them to renew the treaty made with his father, and to acknowledge him king of Macedon ; in return for which he promised that he would act as their faithful ally, and undertake no war without their permission. Upon which, the senate acknowledged his title to the throne, and pronounced him the friend of the Roman people.

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B.C.

His conduct was so gracious, and his insinuations and intrigues with his neighbours so effectual, that most of the Greek states inclined to Perseus, who pretended to be the patron of Grecian liberty against the pride and domination of Rome. In his own kingdom he amassed great sums of money, provided stores of provisions and arms for a numerous army, and kept up a military establishment of 30,000 foot, and 5000 horse. The Romans being informed of these proceedings, sent ambassadors to question Perseus as to the authenticity of the reports. The king, however, answering only with pride and insolence, war was formally declared against him. As soon as this was done, the Romans sent envoys among the Greek states to seek their co-operation against Perseus. The Achæans, Thesalians, Ætolians, and part of the Boeotians, gave them their support, but the Boeotian cities, Coronea and Haliartus, took part with Perseus. These cities were, however, unable to defend themselves, and were subsequently taken by the Romans, and their inhabitants sold as slaves. The Greek cities of Asia Minor, on whose support Perseus had reckoned, ranged themselves on the side of Rome, and the Odsygii, a tribe of Thrace, were the only allies that afforded him positive assistance.

172  
B.C.

The Romans sent an army into Epirus under the command of Publius Licinius Crassus, and a fleet into the Ægean Sea, under Caius Lucretius. The former was defeated by Perseus, near Larissa, in Thessaly, with great slaughter, but when the Macedonian king proposed to treat for peace, Crassus refused to listen to him

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B.C.

both armies came to a general engagement. The Macedonians were broken and routed with Perseus fled, with his treasures, to Pellæ, the strongest city of Macedon, and thence to Thrace, where he sought refuge in the temple of Pollux.

Abandoned now by all the world, without friends, and without hope, Perseus surrendered his eldest son, Philip, into the hands of the consul, who approached the consul with the most abject face to the earth, and endeavouring with his arms to grasp his knees. Æmilius, however, would not suffer him to kneel, and encouraged him with promises of safety from the Roman people. Perseus was then led in triumph through the streets of Rome, and then to retire to Alba, where he starved himself and died before his father; but Perseus left a son, Alexander, who was put apprentice to a carpenter, and became a clerk or secretary to the senate.

Though Paulus Æmilius declared Macedonia divided the kingdom into four governments, Bithynia, Thessalonica, Pella, and Pelagonia, he forbade the inhabitants of one province at least political intercourse with those of another. He also took away the most valuable property of the nobility above the age of fifteen to leave them prohibited the working of the richest mines.

he assumed the appellation of Philip. He first retired to Demetrius Soter, in Syria, who had married a sister of Perseus, but who delivered him up to the Romans to avoid incurring their resentment. The pretender, however, escaped to Thrace, and having collected some troops, entered Macedonia, which he soon subdued. He was brave and intrepid, but, like Perseus, cruel, avaricious, proud in prosperity, and mean in adversity. He imprudently exposed his crown to the hazard of a general battle, and, being defeated, was taken prisoner, and served to adorn the triumph of Quintus Cæcilius Metellus, his conqueror. Such was the end of this war, which afforded what had long been desired, an opportunity of reducing Macedonia to the condition of a Roman province, which was finally carried out after the conquest of Greece, two years later.

149  
B.C.148  
B.C.

It is necessary now to turn once more to Greece and relate the few events that immediately preceded her subjugation by the Romans, and consequent erasure from the list of nations which were then in existence. In every state and every city of Greece at the time of the last war between Rome and Macedonia, were two parties, one of which desired national independence, while the other not only advocated non-resistance to Rome, but even wished to see Roman supremacy firmly established in Greece. Arrests of those who were known to be, and even suspected to be hostile to Rome, were freely made, and, while some were put to death, others were sent across the Adriatic in chains. Callicrates, who was the head of the Roman party in the Achaean states, and had been elected strategus more than once through the influence of the senate, handed over 1000 men from different cities of the league to the Romans, who sent them to Rome for trial, simply because they were patriotic enough to desire the independence of their country, and there they were kept in durance nearly seventeen years, not being permitted to return to their native land until 151 B.C. Another act of Roman vengeance was perpetrated on the Epirots by Æmilius, who invaded their country, destroyed their cities, and sold almost the whole of the able-bodied men as slaves. He also ordered the dissolution of the Ætolian League.

167  
B.C.

It was just after the return of the exiles that an attack of the Athenians on Oropus, in Eubœa, caused the men of that

city to appeal to the Achæan League for redress, accompanying their petition by a bribe to the strategus at that time, by name Menalcidas. This man, who was a Spartan, offered half to Callicrates to advocate the cause of the people of Aropos, but when Callicrates found that the money was withheld, he accused Menalcidas of having been in communication with Rome to obtain the severance of Sparta from the league, and an attack on Sparta was commenced on the excuse that the Spartans had broken the rule which provided that all disputes among the members of the league should be settled by their representatives in the general council. The Spartans

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B.C.

appealed to Rome, who ordered the Achæans to give up Sparta and Corinth. The leaders of the league refused and prepared for war, which was gladly and promptly declared by Rome, and Metellus, who had just defeated Andriscus in Macedonia, was ordered to enter the Peloponnesus. His progress southward was checked by Diaus, the strategus of the Achæan League, but Diaus was compelled to retrace his steps and hasten to the relief of Corinth, on hearing that it was invested by another Roman army, which had landed at its northern port, under the command of the consul Lucius Mummius. On arriving before the doomed city, the troops of Diaus were cut to pieces, and the garrison and inhabitants having witnessed the fate of those on whom alone they depended for succour, immediately took to flight. Corinth was sacked and burnt, and all the valuable art treasures that had been gathered within its walls were sent to Rome. The subjugation of the rest of Greece was an easy task to Metellus and Mummius, and in the fol-

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B.C.

lowing year Northern Greece and the Peloponnesus were formed into the Roman province of Achaia, while Thessaly and Epirus were added to the province of Macedonia, which was constituted at the same time. From this period the History of Greece becomes merged in the History of Rome.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Renewal of war between Perseus of Macedonia and Rome .....	B.C. 171	Division of Macedonia into provinces paying a tax to Rome .....	B.C. 167
Defeat of Perseus at Pydna, and his subse- quent surrender .....	„ 168	Deportation of Greeks, principally Achæans, to Rome.....	„ 167

The throne of Macedonia claimed by an adventurer named Andriacus .....	B.C. 152	Action taken by the Achæan League against Sparta, and war declared in consequence by Rome.....	B.C. 147
Return of the Greek exiles from Italy permitted by the senate .....	„ 151	Invasion of Greece by Metellus and Mummius. Sack of Corinth ..	147
Defeat of Andriacus by the Romans, under Metellus.....	„ 147	Constitution of the Roman provinces of Achaia and Macedonia ..	146

## CHAPTER XIII.

## THE GREEK COLONIES OF ASIA MINOR AND THE PRINCIPAL ISLANDS OF THE ÆGEAN SEA AND EASTERN MEDITERRANEAN.

## 1. IONIA, ÆOLIA, AND DORIS.

WE must now pass on to a brief sketch of the colonies which were established by the Greeks on the mainland of Asia Minor, and in the principal islands of the Ægean Sea, and the eastern part of the Mediterranean Sea.

1. *Ionia*.—When the Ionians were driven out of the northern part of the Peloponnesus, they sought refuge in Attica, which was inhabited by the same race, and the surplus population there found their way eastward across the Ægean Sea, under the sons of Codrus as leaders, and after leaving small bodies of the settlers on most of the islands comprised in the group called the Cyclades, they established themselves in the central part of the west coast of Asia Minor between the rivers Hermus and Mæander. To this district they gave the name of Ionia. It was bounded by Æolia on the north, Caria on the south, and Lydia on the east. The colonists established twelve cities in this country and the neighbouring islands of Chios and Samos, which were united in a federal league for mutual defence and assistance, called the Ionian confederacy. The place of meeting for the representatives of the cities who assembled yearly to deliberate on the common affairs of the league, was the temple of Neptune, on Mount Mycale, which was also called the Panionium.

The principal cities of Ionia were those of Priene, Miletus, Colophon, Clazomenæ, Ephesus, Lebedos, Teos, Phocæa, Erythræ, Smyrna, and the capitals of Chios and Samos. These were the twelve cities included in the confederacy, the laws of which are not known, but which united them against a common danger from any foreign power.

One of the most remarkable cities of Ionia was Phocæa, now called Foggia, which is situated on the seashore, at a small distance from Smyrna. The inhabitants were expert mariners, and the first Greeks who undertook long voyages, which they performed in galleys impelled by fifty oars.

In the time of Cyrus the Great, when their city was besieged by the Persians, part of them sailed away westward with their wives, children, and all the wealth and goods that they could carry with them to Corsica, where they took refuge and founded Aleria.

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B.C.

600

B.C.

Others made their way to Massilia, now Marseilles, which was established by a band of adventurers from Phocæa, about fifty years previously, and which remained a free city until 49 B.C., when it was taken by the Romans under Julius Cæsar.

Herodotus says that it was founded by the Æolians, from whom it was taken by the Ionians about 688 B.C. It was taken and rased to the ground by the Lydians about 626 B.C., and remained in a miserable condition for about 300 years.

Smyrna is situated on the isthmus of the Ionian peninsula, and is now one of the largest and richest cities of the Levant. It distinguished itself by its attachment to the Romans even in the time of their distress, and especially during the greatest success of the Carthaginians.

Clazomenæ anciently stood on the mainland, and was fortified by the Ionians to oppose the progress of the Persian arms. But the inhabitants were so terrified after the defeat of Croesus, and the surrender of Sardis, that they withdrew to one of the neighbouring islands, and built a city of the same name, which Alexander joined to the continent by a causeway two hundred and fifty paces in length. The Romans declared the inhabitants a free people; and Augustus embellished this city with many stately buildings.

At Erythræ, a Sybil gave her oracles. Teos was the native city of Anacreon. At Lebedus, games were annually performed in honour of Bacchus. Colophon was the birth-place



icander, and even, as it pretended, of Homer; and e, that of Bias.

hesus, which in 129 B.C. was made the capital of the n province of Asia Minor, was an old Carian city, was burnt by the Amazons in 1141 B.C., and subse- ly rebuilt by Androclus, a son of Codrus, 1043 B.C. s taken by Cræsus, king of Lydia, in 559 B.C. The ornament of Ephesus was the celebrated temple of , commenced at the common charge of all the Asiatic , in 552 B.C., and reckoned among the wonders of the .

This great edifice was situated at the foot of a ain, and the head of a marsh, that it might be less t to earthquakes. In its structure, whole quarries were sted; and it was two hundred and twenty, or, as Pliny four hundred years in building. To secure the founda- f the conduits, or sewers, which were to bear a building h a prodigious weight, Pliny says they laid beds of al well rammed, and upon them others of wool. This e was four hundred and twenty-five feet in length, and undred in breadth, and was supported by one hundred wenty-seven marble pillars, seventy feet high. The Diana of the Ephesians was a small statue of ebony, was found in the trunk of a tree, and believed to be own from heaven by Jupiter. This temple was burned e Herostratus, that his name might descend to posterity; herefore, the Ephesians passed a decree, forbidding any t to mention him. It was destroyed in 356 B.C., on the ame day that Alexander the Great was born. In the idatic war, the Ephesians declared against the Romans, urthered all of that nation whom they found in the Sulla punished this crime only by a fine.

city of Miletus possessed a temple of Apollo and an . In it was born Thales, one of the seven wise men, he first who foretold an eclipse of the sun. Miletus ally maintained, with its own forces, a war against tes and Alyattes, kings of Lydia, from 623 to 612 B.C. olting against the Persians, in 500 B.C., the city was ed, taken, and laid in ashes, in 494, B.C., and the in- ts were transferred to Ampe, a city on the Persian ot far from the mouth of the Tigris: this event hap- in the reign of Darius Hystaspes. The Milesians re- from their captivity, and rebuilt their city, but could

never restore it to its former state of wealth and splendour. They were frequently subjected by tyrants. Alexander took the city by assault in 334 B.C., but restored their liberty to the inhabitants, and the Romans granted them great privileges.

2. *Æolia*.—This country, which derived its name from the Æolians, was settled by a mixed body of Achæans and Boeotians, who were of Æolian extraction, about 1104 B.C. It at first included the island of Lemnos, and the greater part of the Troad, and extended southwards as far as the Hermus; but subsequently the Troad was included in Mysia. The Æolians founded twelve cities in Lesbos and the mainland, of which Lesbos and Cymæ were the most famous. Afterwards Smyrna was taken by the Ionians, and the number of Æolian cities was thus reduced to eleven. The inhabitants of Pitane, one of these cities, made bricks, which would swim in water like wood.

3. *Doris*.—The district so called included that large promontory of Caria, which juts into the sea opposite to the island of Telos, the islands of Rhodes and Cos, and the cities of Halicarnassus and Cnidus. It was settled by Dorians from the Peloponnesus, soon after the return of the Heraclidæ, about 1100 B.C. The principal city was Halicarnassus, famous for the mausoleum or tomb, which was built by queen Artemisia, in honour of her husband Mausolus, and which was so magnificent a structure, that the ancients considered it as one of the wonders of the world. This was the birth-place of the two celebrated historians, Herodotus and Dionysius, and of the poets Heraclitus and Callimachus. Cnidus was famous for the Venus of Praxiteles.

The most important part of the history of Ionia, Æolia, and Doris, is that which is connected with the long wars between Greece and Persia, which have already been narrated. The religion of the people was the same with that of Greece. From a monarchical, they passed to a republican form of government. From being brave and hardy, they became voluptuous, effeminate, and superstitious. They were first subdued by the Lydians, and were subject to Croesus, king of that country, when they were conquered by the Persians, under Cyrus, 557 B.C. When Persia was contemplating the invasion of Greece, in 500 B.C., the people of these countries revolted, and rejoined the Greeks; but their independence

was not fully established until the defeat of the Persians in the battles of the Eurymedon, 466 B.C., and the Ionians became subject to Persia again at the peace of Antalcidas, in 387 B.C. The Romans subjected them with the other Greeks (133 B.C.). The Ionians afterwards massacred the Romans, and were punished by Sulla, who exacted such heavy fines and taxes as reduced them to beggary; and they never regained their former state of wealth and splendour.

## 2. THE PRINCIPAL ISLANDS OF THE ÆGEAN SEA.

Although some of the principal islands of the Ægean Sea have been mentioned in connection with Ionia, Æolia, and Doris, there are a few—namely, Rhodes, Samos, Chios, Lesbos, and Lemnos, which demand separate notice.

1. *Rhodes*.—This island derived its name from the Greek word *rhodon*, a rose, and is situated in the Mediterranean Sea, opposite to the southern peninsula of Caria, from which it is distant but a few miles. It anciently produced, in great abundance, all sorts of delicious fruits, and wines of so exquisite a taste, that they were used by the Romans chiefly in their sacrifices. The city of Rhodes had a commodious harbour, defended by rocks which were fifty feet distant from each other, and which served as a base to the famous Colossus. This Colossus was a statue of copper, erected in honour of Apollo, or the sun, the tutelary deity of the island, and was one hundred and five feet in height, so that ships, in entering the harbour, sailed between its legs. Chares, of Lindos, who made it, was employed ten years (290—280 B.C.) in completing the work. After it had stood about sixty years (222 B.C.), it was thrown down by an earthquake, and lay eight hundred and ninety-four years in the place where it had fallen. Moawijah, the fifth caliph of the Saracens, and founder of the dynasty of the Omniades, sold it to a Jew, who loaded nine hundred camels with the fragments; so that the weight of the Colossus, estimating at the rate which each camel could carry, must have amounted to 720,000 pounds.

672  
B.C.

The Rhodians applied themselves very early to trade and navigation, and became so skilled in maritime affairs, that for many ages they were sovereigns of the sea. Their laws, known by the name of the Rhodian Laws, became the code

by which all controversies respecting maritime affairs were decided.

The government of Rhodes was originally monarchical, and it is said that several kings reigned in this island before the Trojan war. To royalty succeeded the republican form of government, after the occupation of the island by the Dorians.

The city of Rhodes was built about 408 B.C. The inhabitants of the island sided with Athens at the commencement of the Peloponnesian War (431 B.C.), but in the following year transferred their support to Sparta. In 396 B.C., when Conon visited the island with an Athenian fleet, they changed sides once more, and a democracy was established, which gave way six years later to a renewal of the oligarchical form of government, under the protection of Sparta.

Having been subdued by the king of Caria, the Rhodians avenged themselves on his widow, Artemisia, and ravaged her kingdom. Artemisia, learning that they meant to attack Halicarnassus, exhorted the inhabitants to post themselves on the walls, and when the enemy appeared, to express by acclamations and the clapping of hands, that they wished to surrender. The Rhodians, not suspecting any treachery, left their fleet unguarded, and entered the city. In the meantime Artemisia came with her galleys, and seizing the enemy's fleet, without resistance, set sail for Rhodes. The inhabitants, seeing their own vessels approach, adorned

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B.C.

with wreaths of laurel, entertained no doubt that Halicarnassus was taken, and admitted into their port the Carians, who made themselves masters of the city. Artemisia punished with death, at Halicarnassus, the stupid confidence of those who had suffered themselves to be deceived.

Rhodes afterwards regained its freedom by the aid of the Athenians, but was subdued by Alexander the Great in 333 B.C. At his death the Macedonian garrison was driven out, and the independence of the city again proclaimed. One of the most celebrated events in regard to ancient Rhodes, is the siege it sustained against Demetrius, the son

304

B.C.

of Antigonus. Many encouragements, both of interest and glory, inspired all orders in the city with the most invincible ardour. The rich defrayed the expenses of the siege, and supplied the artificers and en-

gineers with timber for the machines, and with metals proper for making arms. The Rhodians opposed to Demetrius no less skill and industry than he himself possessed. At the end of a year, this prince thought himself happy in finding a pretence for raising the siege without dishonour. He made a present of his machines to the Rhodians, who sold them, and with the money that they obtained for them purchased the copper employed in forming the Colossus.

The Rhodians concluded a treaty with the Romans, to whom they rendered eminent services in several naval battles, but who did not reward them equal to their expectations. They, therefore, showed an attachment to Perseus, king of Macedon, with whom the Romans were at war. This conduct excited the indignation of the Roman senate, and many of the members were of opinion that war ought to be declared against the Rhodians. However, through the interference of Cato, the senate only required that those who had shown themselves partisans of Perseus might be banished. This being done, the Rhodians were declared allies of the Romans.

168

B.C.

164

B.C.

The Romans assembled in Rhodes, when expelled from Asia by Mithridates, king of Pontus. This prince, therefore, laid siege to it, but met with an obstinate resistance from the inhabitants, as well as the refugees. The Rhodians took part with Pompey in his struggle with Cæsar, in 50 B.C., and, after Cæsar's death, supported the republican party. They were consequently subdued by Octavian, and deprived of the liberty that they had so long enjoyed, in 42 B.C. In 616 A.D. the island was occupied by Chosroes II., king of Persia, and in 651 A.D. it was taken by the Saracens.

88

B.C.

2. *Samos*.—This island is situated between the mainland of Asia Minor and the island of Icaria, and is about ninety miles in circumference. Near Samos, the capital, stood a superb temple dedicated to Juno, the tutelar deity of the island, an aqueduct which crossed a mountain, and conveyed water to the city; and a mole of one hundred and twenty feet in height, which extended two furlongs into the sea.

The island of Samos was first peopled by Carians, and afterwards by Ionian emigrants, as it has been said. Samos, the metropolis, held a considerable rank among the twelve cities

of the Ionian confederacy. The form of government was at first monarchical, afterwards republican, under a democracy, and then oligarchical. The nobles, who were denominated *geomori*, deprived the people of their lands, which they divided among themselves. Afterwards the *geomori* were put to the sword, and democracy was re-established, by nine generals, whom the nobles had appointed to command the troops.

**531** This form of government gave place to tyranny,  
which was established by one Syloson. The people,

**B.C.** however, resumed their authority, but were again obliged to submit to Polycrates, the famous tyrant of Samos, who encouraged at his court the poet Anacreon. The Samians had been celebrated for their commerce since 776 B.C., but, under Polycrates, their navy assumed prominence as the most powerful in Greek waters.

Polycrates was succeeded in his tyranny by Mæandrus, his secretary and minister, who was expelled by Syloson, the brother of Polycrates. Various successors held the reins of government, under the protection of the Persians, or in alliance with the Athenians or Lacedæmonians. The Samians took part in the battle of Mycale, in which the Greeks defeated the Persians in 479 B.C. The subsequent connection of Samos with the Delian confederacy, and the "Samian War," which followed its secession from the league in 440 B.C., has been already mentioned. For a long

**133** time Samos remained without a navy, and the  
degenerate state into which it fell was rendered

**B.C.** still worse under the kings of Macedonia, Syria, and Pergamus. On the death of Attalus III., the last king of Pergamus, the Samians became subject to Rome.

3. *Chios*.—This island, which is now called *Chio*, is supposed to have derived its name from the Greek *chion*, snow, because snow often fell there. Its attachment with Samos to the Ionic confederacy has been mentioned. It was invaded by the Persians and almost reduced to ruin in 493 B.C. It joined the Delian confederacy, but revolted from Athens in 412 B.C., when the Athenians attacked the island and the Chions were defeated. Chios was finally delivered from the yoke of Athens by a second revolt of the inhabitants in 357 B.C. The island was occupied by Philip V. of Macedon in 201 B.C. After the subjugation of Greece, the people of Chios, who had always shown a friendly disposition towards the

Romans, remained for many years in possession of their liberties and privileges.

4. *Lesbos*.—This island was first peopled by the Pelasgi. Macar, or Macareus, the son of Criasius, and grandson of Argos, led a colony thither from the Peloponnesus at an early period. He was succeeded by his son-in-law and successor, Lesbos, from whom the island took its name. It was subsequently occupied by the Æolians, as it has been said. It joined the revolt of Chios against the Athenians, and recovered its liberty about the same time. It was incorporated with the Roman province of Asia about 48 B.C. Arion, Tripander, Sappho, and Alcæus, famous for music and lyric poetry, were natives of Lesbos.

5. *Lemnos*.—This large island, which lies midway between the Chalcidian peninsula and the entrance to the Hellespont, was peopled by Thracians. The story goes that these were murdered to a man by their wives, who afterwards contracted a temporary alliance with the Greeks, who sailed on the Argonautic expedition. Their descendants were expelled by Pelasgian Greeks about 1100 B.C. It was conquered by the Persians in 505 B.C., from whom it was taken and annexed to Athens by Miltiades in 489 B.C. It was occupied by the Macedonians for a short time, but, with this exception, it remained a dependency of Athens until the final subjugation of Greece.

6. *The Cyclades*.—The islands called the Cyclades were so denominated from a Greek word *kuklos*, which signifies a circle, because they were arranged somewhat in that form around Delos, the island of Apollo. The name was originally applied to those which lay thus about Delos, but ultimately included the whole group of islands eastward of the Peloponnesus, as far as the channel which separates them from the Sporades. The chief of them are Ceos, Andros, Naxos, Paros, Melos, Seriphos, Gyaros, Tenos, etc. They were colonised by Ionians after the death of Codrus of Athens.

7. *The Sporades*.—The islands called the Sporades obtained their appellation from their scattered form, the name being derived from a Greek word, *sporadicos*, separate or scattered. They lie chiefly on the coast of Asia Minor, to which part of the globe they belong. The relation of most of them to Ionia and Doris has been already mentioned.

## CHAPTER XIV.

## THE GREEK COLONIES IN SICILY, AND THE WESTERN MEDITERRANEAN SEABOARD.

## 1. GREEK COLONIZATION IN THE WEST.

To follow out all the ramifications of Greek colonization on the seaboard of countries westward of Greece, would be tedious, and perhaps useless. It will be sufficient to point out the principal colonies that were established on the coasts of Italy, Gaul, and Africa, and then pass on to a more detailed account of Sicily, which formed the principal field in a westerly direction for the enterprise of emigrants, chiefly Dorian, from the mother country.

The principal Greek colonies in Southern Italy, to which the names of Hesperia and Magna Græcia were given by the Greeks, were Cumæ, on the north side of the Bay of Naples, founded, it is said, about 1050 B.C., by emigrants from Cyme, in Ætolia, and Chalcis, in Eubœa, Parthenope, now Naples, founded by emigrants from Cumæ, and called Neapolis, or the "New City," by Augustus; Sybaris, founded by Achæan settlers about 720 B.C.; Croton, also founded by Achæans, about ten years later; Posidonia, now called Paestum, a daughter colony of Sybaris; Elea, founded by the Phocæans of Corsica, whom the Carthaginians and Tyrrhenians compelled to abandon Aleria; Rhegium, now Reggio, founded by emigrants from Chalcis, about 720 B.C.; Locri Epizephyrii, built by emigrants from Western Locris about 683 B.C., for whom Zaleucus compiled a written code of laws as soon as the colony was in a sufficiently settled state to admit of attention to internal organisation and special legislation; and Tarentum, founded by Spartans about 708 B.C., whose code of laws was compiled by Archytas, about 400 B.C. The separate history of these colonies would occupy many pages. Tarentum will be mentioned in connection with the History of Rome, and has already been named in the account of Pyrrhus and Epirus. All the Greek colonies on the coast of Italy ultimately fell under the power of the Romans, but some of them were captured and annexed by others previously to this, and notably Sybaris, which was conquered and destroyed by the people of Croton about 510 B.C.



The principal Greek colonies in Sicily were Gela, founded by Dorians from Rhodes and Crete, about 690 B.C., and its daughter colony Agrigentum, built about 582 B.C.; Zancle, founded about 600 B.C., whose name was subsequently changed to Messena, by fugitives from Messenia, and which was an offshoot of Naxos, founded by emigrants from Chalcis and Megara in 735 B.C.; Catana and Leontina, early offshoots of Naxos, founded about 730 B.C.; and Megara, near Mount Hybla, founded by colonists from Megara about 728 B.C. In addition to these were Selinus, a colony of the Sicilian Megara, established 630 B.C., and Himera, an offshoot of Zancle, established 648 B.C. Syracuse was founded by a party of Corinthians, under Archias, who settled in Sicily in 734 B.C., and ultimately became the leading city in the island. Panormus, now Palermo, was founded by the Phœnicians at a very early date, and Egesta and Eryx owe their origin to the Tyrrhenians.

## 2. SICILY.—SYRACUSE.—GELO AND HIS SUCCESSORS.

The great and fruitful island of Sicily was anciently known by the names of Sicania, Sicilia, and Trinacria, from its triangular form. It is situated between Italy and Africa, at the southern extremity of the former. The whole circumference is about six hundred miles.

In the Tuscan, or Tyrrhenian Sea, near Sicily, lie the *Æolian* and *Vulcanian* isles, in which Vulcan is fabled to have had his forges, and *Æolus* to have confined the winds subject to his command. It is, however, probable that the whistling of the winds through the caverns of the isles, and their volcanic fires, excited the idea of forges and tempests.

It is pretended that the Cyclopes and the *Læstrigones* who were giants, were the earliest inhabitants of the island. The Cyclopes, who were the workmen of Vulcan, being destroyed, were succeeded by the Sicani, who migrated from the banks of the river Sicanus in Spain, and called the country Sicania. The number of the inhabitants was augmented by some Trojans; and the Siculi, or Sicilians, went to this island as exiles from Ausonia, or deserters from Liguria. Sicily was also peopled by Greeks from Chalcis, Achaia, Doris, and from Crete, Rhodes, and other islands; and by some colonies from Italy, as it has been already shown.

At length Syracuse usurped the chief power in the island,

and continued for a long time the metropolis of Sicily. It was at first governed by kings ; and afterwards a democracy was established. It exhibits a continual alternation of slavery under tyrants, and of liberty under a popular government.

Gelo, or Gelon, a native of Gela, is said to have introduced himself into Syracuse by his address, and to  
**485** have gained the favour of the people, who invested  
 B.C. him with absolute power. He laid the foundation

of that immense commerce, which rendered Syracuse strong and opulent. He proposed to assist the Greeks against Xerxes, when the Carthaginians, whom the Persian monarch had subsidized to make a diversion in his favour, landed in Sicily a considerable army, under the command of Hamilcar. However, Gelo, by means of an intercepted letter, was enabled to attack the Carthaginians, who had landed and posted themselves at Himera, and in a great battle that followed, Hamilcar was killed, and his army dispersed. Gelo at

the same time burnt the Carthaginian ships, after  
**480** carrying the camp by assault. One galley only  
 B.C. escaped, to convey to Carthage the news of this disaster. The Carthaginians, in the utmost consternation, sent ambassadors to conclude a peace with Gelo on any terms. Gelo, however, only required that they should pay a sum of money for the expenses of the war, erect a temple in which the treaty should be preserved, and abolish human sacrifices. An assembly of the Syracusans being convened, Gelo, who had hitherto appeared in the modest quality of prætor, was invited to assume the title of king, and invested with supreme authority. The people also passed a decree, settling the crown, after his death, on his two brothers, Hiero and Thrasybulus.

Gelo employed the short time he reigned in rendering his people happy. He was particularly celebrated for his honesty, truth, and sincerity ; and he is said never to have wronged even the meanest of his subjects, and never to have promised what he did not perform. He encouraged agriculture, and was an enemy to all luxury and pomp.

Gelo was succeeded by his elder brother, Hiero, whom some  
**478** represent as an excellent prince, and others as a  
 B.C. covetous, obstinate, and cruel tyrant. He was a great encourager of science and art. He took Ca-

tania and settled a number of Syracusans in the town in 476 B.C.

Hiero was succeeded by his brother Thrasybulus, a cruel and sanguinary tyrant, who massacred all those who gave him the least cause of offence. Incensed at this oppressive conduct, the people took up arms and expelled the tyrant, who retired to Italy. His departure restored liberty to the Syracusans, who established a democracy, which, however, assigned the magistracies to the principal inhabitants. In order to prevent anyone from aspiring to the supreme power, they enacted a law similar to that of the Athenian ostracism, which was called *petalism* from the Greek word *petalon*, a leaf. It was inscribed with the name of the accused person, who, if condemned by a plurality of votes, was banished for five years. This law being greatly abused, was afterwards repealed.

467

B.C.

466

B.C.

The Syracusans attempting to subdue the neighbouring cities, the latter requested the assistance of the Athenians, who had long wished to form an establishment in Sicily. Nicias, a prudent general, whom the public esteem marked out for that expedition, endeavoured to dissuade the Athenians from such an undertaking; but the senate, as well as the people, were hurried on by enthusiasm, and determined to sell the Syracusans and their allies as slaves, and oblige the other cities of Sicily to pay an annual tribute to Athens.

Accordingly, the Athenians set sail, and arrived before Syracuse, which they besieged both by sea and land. The Syracusans were reduced to such distress as to think of surrendering, when Gylippus, a Spartan general, arrived with assistance from Lacedæmon. Nicias found himself under a necessity of demanding a reinforcement from Athens, which dispatched another fleet, commanded by Demosthenes, a brave and enterprising general. This fleet, on board of which were eight thousand men, arrived with the air and parade of victory. Demosthenes induced Nicias to make an assault, which was not successful.

415

B.C.

414

B.C.

The Athenians, who besieged Syracuse, finding themselves blockaded in the harbour, became sensible of the necessity of forcing a retreat, that they might save their fleet. Accordingly, the Athenian and Syra-

413

B.C.

cusan armaments met, and an engagement ensued, which continued the whole day, and in which the Athenians were completely defeated. Finding no other resource left than to endeavour to reach some towns in alliance with them, where they might wait till succours should arrive from Athens, or vessels to convey them home, they began their march. However, the dead and the dying retarded their progress; and the sick and the wounded, clasping their comrades or friends in their arms, conjured them with tears not to leave them behind. The enemy briskly pursued, and allowed them scarcely a moment of rest. Nicias and Demosthenes were made prisoners and put to death. The soldiers were shut up in the quarries in the neighbourhood of Syracuse, where they received a scanty allowance of food, and were infected with the putrid bodies of their dead companions. Such was the issue of this war, after it had continued nearly three years.

Sicily was soon engaged in a new contest. The Egestines, who had invited the Athenians into Sicily, dreading the resentment of the Syracusans, offered to put their city into the hands of the Carthaginians, from whom they requested assistance against the inhabitants of Selinuntum, or Selinus. The Carthaginians committed the management of the war to Han-

**410**      nibal, the grandson of Hamilcar, who landed in  
B.C.      Sicily with a large army. The Selinuntines de-  
fended their walls, their streets, their public squares,  
and even their houses, but were everywhere overpowered by

**409**      numbers. A few of them escaped to Agrigentum,  
B.C.      and the rest were cut to pieces by the Carthaginians,  
who committed dreadful cruelties and atrocities.

The conquerors then marched to Himera, before which Hamilcar had been killed by Gelo, and which shared the same fate as Selinuntum. Hannibal ordered 3000 of the inhabitants to be barbarously massacred on the spot, where his grandfather had been defeated and killed, and after thus terminating the campaign, he embarked his troops and set sail for Africa.

The Carthaginians being allured by the hopes of more plunder, returned to Sicily with a new army, and  
**406**      attacked Agrigentum, the most opulent city in the  
B.C.      island, next to Syracuse. In the first sally, the besieged burnt the machines, and made a prodigious slaughter of the enemy. Hannibal, therefore, commanded all the

tombs and stately monuments around the city to be demolished, and mounds to be raised with the materials. Soon after, a plague broke out in the army, and carried off a great number of soldiers, and the general himself. At length, Agrigentum being greatly distressed for want of provisions, the inhabitants resolved to leave the city, which was taken possession of by the Carthaginians, who practised dreadful cruelties on the aged, the sick, and the infirm, and obtained immense riches, and a prodigious number of paintings, vases, and statues.

The Agrigentines, who took refuge in Syracuse, filled that city with complaints against the Syracusan commanders, as if they had betrayed Agrigentum into the hands of the enemy. This raised such disturbances in Syracuse as afforded to Dionysius, a bold, eloquent, and aspiring man, an opportunity of seizing on the sovereign power, and of depriving the inhabitants of that liberty which they had long abused, and gradually converted into unbounded licentiousness. After procuring a guard of one thousand men, and being joined by part of the garrison in Gela, he possessed himself of the citadel, and, bidding defiance to his opposers, publicly declared himself king of Syracuse, in the twenty-fifth year of his age. But on the first defeat he experienced from the Carthaginians, the people, supposing that a secret understanding prevailed between them, revolted and united with his enemies. Dionysius, however, found means not only to appease the revolt, but to conclude a peace with the Carthaginians. A new insurrection of the Syracusans was speedily quelled by the arrival of foreign troops, who forced their way to the place where Dionysius was blockaded, and set him at liberty.

405  
B.C.

To occupy the attention of the people, Dionysius again declared war against the Carthaginians, from whom he took the most important of the towns which they possessed in Sicily, but who, nevertheless, appeared before Syracuse, to which they laid siege. Dionysius having proceeded with a detachment from the fleet, in quest of provisions, the Syracusans gained some advantage during his absence, and refused to admit him on his return, unless he would abdicate the sovereignty. But Pharacides, who commanded a body of Lacedæmonians sent to the relief of Syracuse, declaring that he had come to assist Dionysius,

399  
B.C.

and not to destroy his authority, the assembly dispersed, and the tyrant was admitted.

The Carthaginians being exhausted by a plague, were obliged to raise the siege, and Dionysius suffered them to retire unmolested, on condition that they paid him a large sum of money. He then turned his arms against Italy, and took Rhegium, the inhabitants of which he treated with his usual inhumanity. Indeed, no act of clemency was ever performed by Dionysius, but through interest. Inhumanity seemed to be natural to him. He was so afraid of suffering the people to approach him, that he always harangued them from the top of a tower. No person was admitted into his presence without being searched. So fearful was he, although so cruel, that the least noise in the streets, or in his palace, made him tremble.

Dionysius possessed a passion for poetry. He contended for the prize at Athens, and, when he gained it, showed more satisfaction than on account of his greatest victories. On that occasion, he entertained the whole city with extraordinary magnificence, and spent an immense treasure in public feasts and banquets, which continued several days. In the midst of this rejoicing, he was seized with a complaint, which terminated at once his life and his reign.

He was succeeded by his son Dionysius II., who was surnamed the Younger, and who was a weak and irresolute prince. Peaceable and calm in his disposition, he was naturally inclined to virtue, and averse from violence and cruelty, but his father had stifled in him every noble and elevated sentiment by a mean and an obscure education. Dionysius had no sooner escaped from the restraint imposed upon him by a gloomy father, than he abandoned himself to all kinds of dissolute pleasures. Dion, the brother of Aristomache, the wife of Dionysius the Elder, a friend and disciple of Plato, induced the young prince to banish the companions of his pleasures and to recall Plato. The philosopher, however, had soon reason to repent of his compliance. Through a cabal of courtiers, Dion and Plato were disgraced, and obliged to retire to Athens.

Dionysius not only refused to Dion the revenue arising from his property, but compelled his wife Arete, who was much beloved by her husband, to espouse Timocrates, one of

his courtiers. These provocations incensed Dion, who collected a small band, composed of brave and resolute men, and arriving at Syracuse whilst Dionysius was engaged with the war in Italy, declared that he came not to avenge his own private wrongs, but to emancipate Syracuse and Sicily from the yoke of the tyrant. Under this standard of liberty, Dion obtained possession of the greater part of the city; and having defeated Dionysius in an engagement, compelled the tyrant to flee into Italy. The citadel, however, still held out, but at length was obliged to capitulate.

356

B.C.

Dion having delivered up the citadel to the Syracusans, dismissed his troops, and began to think of forming a government for his fellow-citizens. According to his plan, the supreme authority was to be vested in a council, the members of which were to be chosen by the people and the nobility. This project, however, being impeded by Heraclides, one of his generals, Dion permitted him to be murdered. For this homicide he was himself punished by a violent death, being assassinated in his own house, by his guest and friend Calippus, who aspired at the sovereignty, but who was soon after expelled Syracuse.

353

B.C.

The death of Dion, and the flight of Calippus, subsequently led to the recall of Dionysius II., who reinstated himself in the possession of his dominions, ten years after he had been obliged to quit the throne. The Syracusans endeavoured to procure the assistance of Ictas, the tyrant of Leontini; but they discovered that he abused their confidence, and had concluded a secret treaty with the Carthaginians, who engaged to render him absolute master of Syracuse, and whose conquests in Sicily he promised not to oppose. Alarmed at this treachery, the Syracusans had recourse to the Corinthians, from whom they were descended, and by whom their deputies were well received.

346

B.C.

In the neighbourhood of Corinth resided a man named Timoleon, whose ardent zeal for liberty had induced him to cause his brother, who was aiming at the sovereignty, to be put to death, though he loved him with the greatest affection. The despair of his mother filling him with horror, he renounced public affairs, withdrew from the city, and for twenty years remained a prey to the deepest melancholy. After that time, he returned to Corinth, where he lived as a

plain individual, without interfering in the government. A plan being in agitation to deliver Syracuse and other cities of Sicily from tyrants, the Corinthians appointed him chief of the enterprise.

Icetas was master of the city of Syracuse, the Carthaginian admiral of the ports, and Dionysius of the citadel.

**343** The last being reduced to the utmost extremity,

**B.C.** Timoleon suffered him to carry away part of his treasures, and caused him to be escorted to Corinth,

where he ruined himself with perfumers, comedians, and singers, and, in order to procure a subsistence, was obliged to keep a school. Timoleon left in the citadel the 400 Corinthians under an able commander named Leon. He afterwards returned with a powerful reinforcement, defeated the Carthaginians, and obtained possession of Syracuse.

Timoleon was no sooner master of Syracuse than he caused a proclamation to be made by sound of trumpet, inviting all the citizens to assemble, and demolish the citadel and the other fortresses, which he called the *nests of tyrants*. On the site where they had stood he caused to be erected public edifices, destined for the administration of public justice. He then employed himself in re-peopling the city, and in forming new laws, the basis of which was the democratic government, under the presidency of an annual magistrate. Timoleon

**339** overran Sicily as a conqueror, subdued the tyrants

**B.C.** of several cities, whom he sent to Corinth to be companions of Dionysius, and defeated the Cartha-

ginians, who again appeared in the island. As a mark of

**336** gratitude for his services, the Syracusans gave him

**B.C.** the most beautiful house in the city, and when he

died it was also enacted that the day of his death should be kept in remembrance by a solemn annual festival.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Syracuse founded by the Corinthians .....	B.C. 734	Death of Gelo : acces- sion of Hiero.....	B.C. 478
Syracuse receives Gelo as its ruler.....	„ 485	Capture of Catania by Hiero .....	„ 476
Sicily invaded by Hamil- car : Carthaginians de- feated by Gelo, who receives the title of king .....	„ 480	Death of Hiero : acces- sion of Thrasybulus...	„ 467
		Expulsion of Thrasybu- lus : democracy formed : petalism established...	„ 466



Invasion of Thessaly by the Athenians : failure of attack on Syracuse	B.C. 415	Dionysius I. declares war against Carthage .....	B.C. 399
Siege of Syracuse by the Athenians relieved by Gylippus and the Spartans .....	„ 414	The Carthaginians retire from Carthage : Dionysius I. invades Italy ..	398
Surrender of Athenian fleet and army .....	„ 413	Death of Dionysius I. : accession of Dionysius II. ....	367
Invasion of Sicily by the Carthaginians .....	„ 410	Expulsion of Dionysius II. by Dion .....	356
Destruction of Salinuntum .....	„ 409	Assassination of Dion by Calippus .....	353
Capture of Himera by Hannibal : 3000 of the inhabitants massacred ..	„ 408	Return of Dionysius II. to Syracuse .....	346
Renewed invasion by the Carthaginians, and capture of Agrigentum ..	„ 406	Seizure of Syracuse by Ictetas of Leontini ...	345
Supreme power in Syracuse seized by Dionysius I., and peace with Carthage .....	„ 405	Expulsion of Dionysius II. by the Corinthian general Timoleon .....	343
		Carthaginians defeated by Dion at the Crinunsi : peace concluded ..	339
		Death of Timoleon .....	336

### 3. AGATHOCLES.—PYRRHUS.—HIERO II.—HIERONYMUS.—THE ROMANS IN SICILY.

For the space of twenty years the Syracusans enjoyed the fruits of Timoleon's services. About that time Syracuse groaned under the tyranny of Agathocles, who exceeded all his predecessors in cruelty and other vices. He was the son of a potter. He possessed most extraordinary beauty, with the most elegant figure, and acquired prodigious strength, to which his bravery was not inferior. He gained the friendship and esteem of a rich Syracusan named Damas, whose wife he afterwards married, and by that means became the most wealthy citizen in Syracuse. He was soon afterwards expelled from that city by Sosistratus, who had usurped the supreme power. He then retired into Italy, and during his abode in that country Sosistratus was obliged to advocate the sovereignty and quit Syracuse. Sosistratus and the other exiles had recourse to the Carthaginians, who readily espoused their cause. Upon this the Syracusans recalled Agathocles, whom they appointed commander-in-chief, and who defeated the combined armies of Sosistratus and Carthaginians, and received seven wounds in the combat. Agathocles, therefore,

323  
B.C.

322  
B.C.

began to exercise a sovereign power over his fellow-citizens, and took such measures as plainly showed that he aimed at monarchy. On discovering his design, the people transferred the command of their forces to a Corinthian, and Agathocles saved his life only by a stratagem.

Agathocles re-appeared under the walls of Syracuse at the head of a strong army, which he had collected in the heart of Sicily, and a negotiation being entered into, he was received into the city, on condition of making no attempt against the democracy, and of taking a solemn oath to maintain the interests of the people. But soon after, under pretence of a war with Erbita, a neighbouring city, he collected a great number of soldiers, whom he induced to pillage Syracuse, and to massacre the whole body of the nobility. In a few hours

**317** more than 4000 persons fell a sacrifice, and the  
 B.C. streets were covered with dead bodies. He ordered the pillage and massacre to be continued two days longer, after which he was proclaimed king by the few survivors.

The success of Agathocles gave uneasiness to the Carthaginians, who sent against him an army under the command of Hamilcar. This general gained over him a complete victory at Himera, which obliged Agathocles to confine himself within Syracuse. Whilst the Carthaginians besieged that city, Agathocles embarked some of his best troops, and, landing in Africa, burned the vessels which had conveyed the army. An engagement took place between the Syracusans and the Carthaginians, the latter of whom were defeated with the loss of Hanno, their general.

In the meantime Syracuse was reduced to great extremity; but Agathocles, having sent to the inhabitants of that city the head of Hanno, the sight of it encouraged them to support with success a last assault. They afterwards attacked and entirely routed the Carthaginian army, took Hamilcar

**308** prisoner, and sent his head to Agathocles. This  
 B.C. spectacle struck the Carthaginians with great terror, and they were twice attacked and defeated by Agathocles with great loss. As the war was prolonged, Agathocles resolved to return to Sicily, and having

**307** given the necessary orders during his absence, em-  
 B.C. barked with him 2000 chosen men, and arrived at Syracuse. After restoring order to the government, and destroying a league which had been formed against him, he set out

once more for Africa. But finding his affairs desperate in that country, he determined to abandon his troops, and making his escape, put to sea. In the first transports of their fury, the soldiers massacred two of his sons, whom he had left behind, and having elected chiefs for themselves, concluded with the Carthaginians a peace, by which they were to be transported to Sicily, and put in possession of the city of Selinuntum. 305  
B.C.

Agathocles, having returned to Sicily, attacked the Egestines, who had revolted, took their city by assault, and put the inhabitants to the sword. After receiving an account of the tragical fate of his children in Africa, he ordered his brother, Antander, governor of Syracuse, to put to death all the relations of the Syracusans who had accompanied him in that expedition, from the great grandfather to the child at the breast. The chief events of the latter part of his reign were his wars in Italy and the Lipari Islands, and a victory over Cassander of Macedonia by sea off Corcyra. He died by poison, it is believed, administered by his grandson, after a reign of twenty-six years. 289  
B.C.

On the death of Agathocles the government was assumed by Mœnon, who was expelled by Hycetas. The latter took the modest title of prætor, but was deprived of the sovereign power by Tœnion, who was opposed by Sosistratus. But being attacked by the Carthaginians, these chiefs united, and called in to their assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, who was then carrying on war against the Romans. By his insinuating conduct and great affability, he won the hearts of the Syracusans, and by his vigorous measures he re-conquered those cities which had thrown off the yoke. But being determined to attack the Carthaginians in their own country, the Syracusans became much dissatisfied, and Pyrrhus thought himself happy to quit Sicily on the invitation of the Italians, who now retalled him. 278  
B.C.

Soon after the departure of Pyrrhus, Hiero was appointed to command the Syracusan forces against the Carthaginians, who had regained most of the places which they possessed before the arrival of the Epirota. Hiero was the son of Hierocles, one of the descendants of Gelo, but his mother was a slave. He had distinguished himself by his courage, prudence, and military exploits; but 275  
B.C.

his great moderation, affability, and engaging behaviour gained him more honour than his military achievements. Though the citizens were displeased that the soldiers should arrogate to themselves the right of electing a chief, they confirmed their choice, and invested Hiero with the whole civil and military power, and he assumed the government with

**263** the title of Hiero II. This power he always exercised with the greatest moderation. He concluded  
B.C. with the Romans a treaty, the conditions of which were so faithfully performed on both sides, that it continued as long as Hiero lived. The part of Sicily over which Hiero reigned was the south-eastern corner and Syracuse. The

**241** northern and western parts were constituted a Ro-  
B.C. man province at the conclusion of the first Punic war, when the Carthaginians were driven out of the island. The Syracusans regarded Hiero as their protector and father, rather than their sovereign. He wrote

**216** on Agriculture, and died at the age of ninety,  
B.C. deeply regretted by his subjects, as well as by foreigners.

Hiero II. intended to abolish royalty, but was dissuaded from his purpose by Demerata, his eldest daughter, who was the wife of Hieronymus, a Sicilian nobleman. He, therefore, appointed his grandson, Hieronymus, king, with a council of fifteen persons, called tutors, to whom he recommended never to abandon the alliance with the Romans. The young prince, having no other check than the presence of men interested in flattering his passions, abandoned himself to debauchery, and soon became an object of contempt as well as detestation. Being informed of Hannibal's victories, he not only refused to ratify the treaty with the Romans, but accompanied his refusal with bitter raillery on their defeats.

His vices and cruelty were such, that a conspiracy was  
**215** formed against him. He was assassinated while  
B.C. passing through a narrow street; and the people showed so little concern for his person, that they suffered the body to rot in the place where it had fallen.

Hieronymus was no sooner dead than two of the conspirators hastened to prevent the attempts of Andranodorus, and others of the king's faction. Though Andranodorus had already seized on the citadel and the island of Ortygia, and filled them with troops, he thought proper to give way to the

circumstances of the moment, and dismissing the soldiers, delivered up to the senate the treasures of his nephew. However, he soon after, in concert with Themistus, the husband of Harmonia, sister of the deceased king, formed a plot to exterminate the chief citizens of Syracuse. This being disclosed to the senate, Andranodorus and Themistus were condemned, though absent, and put to death as they were entering the senate-house. Their execution provoked an angry demonstration against the government, and the people having tumultuously assembled, sentence of death was voted against the guardians and tutors of the late king, and all the members of the royal family. This cruel sentence was no sooner passed by the people than the prætors, who ought to have checked the fury of the mob, ordered it to be put into execution.

The Carthaginians now obtained an ascendancy in Syracuse, and two of them, Hippocrates and Epicydes, who had been sent into the city by Hannibal immediately after the death of Hiero II., had the address to cause the number of the prætors to be reduced to two, and to make the choice fall on themselves. They then opened the prisons, and emancipated the slaves, whom they converted into soldiers. Soon after Marcellus, the Roman consul, appeared at the gates of Syracuse, and demanded that the authors of the late massacre should be delivered into his hands; but finding his demand treated with ridicule, he commenced hostilities, and attempted a general assault on the city. However, by the genius of Archimedes, an able mathematician, without employing the sword, two Roman armies were repulsed on this occasion. Archimedes constructed machines, which discharged stones weighing more than half a ton, and did execution at a great distance, and which dispersed through the air a multitude of large arrows and heavy pikes, and caused them to hit the object at which they were directed.

Marcellus was, therefore, obliged to convert the siege into a blockade, and, at length, he obtained possession of a portion of the city. Acradina, the strongest quarter of the city, held out some time longer, but was at length taken by means of an officer, who gave up to Marcellus one of the gates. Archimedes, being employed in the demonstration of a mathematical problem, did not hear the noise occasioned by the assault, and when a soldier appeared and presented his sword to his breast, he said: "Wait a

214  
B.C.

212  
B.C.

moment, my friend, and my problem will be resolved." The Roman, astonished at his tranquillity, was desirous of carrying him to the consul; but Archimedes taking with him a box full of mathematical instruments, the soldier imagined that it contained gold, and instantly killed him. Marcellus was exceedingly grieved at the accident, and ordered a tomb to be erected to his memory.

After the capture of Syracuse Agrigentum was besieged and taken. By order of the consul Lævinus, the chiefs of the last city were scourged and beheaded, and the people reduced to slavery and sold by auction. After this terrible example no more cities resisted, and Sicily was converted into a province of Rome.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Agathocles acquires ascendancy in Syracuse	B.C. 322	Treaty between Hiero II. and the Romans...	B.C. 263
Agathocles proclaimed king of Syracuse .....	" 317	End of First Punic War: north and west of Sicily taken by the Romans .....	" 241
Hamilcar defeats Agathocles at Himera: invasion of Africa by Agathocles .....	" 310	Death of Hiero II., and accession of his grandson, Hieronymus .....	" 216
Victories of Agathocles in Africa .....	" 308	Rupture of treaty with the Romans: death of Hieronymus: anarchy in Syracuse .....	" 215
Return of Agathocles to Sicily .....	" 305	Siege of Syracuse commenced by Marcellus ..	" 214
Death of Agathocles ...	" 289	Capture of Syracuse ...	" 212
War with Carthage: Pyrrhus of Epirus assists the Syracusans ..	" 278	Capture of Agrigentum: Sicily constituted a Roman province .....	" 310
Retirement of Pyrrhus from Sicily .....	" 276		
Accession of Hiero II. ..	" 275		

#### 4. CRETE AND CYPRUS.

1. *Crete*.—This island, which lies like a long breakwater at the entrance of the Ægean Sea, is one of the largest in the Mediterranean. It formerly contained 100 cities, the remains of which still exhibit remarkable curiosities. Upon Mount Ida lived the Dactyli, or priests of Cybele, who taught the use of fire, the method of fusing copper and iron, and of working these metals, together with poetry, music, and sacred ceremonies. Next to the Dactyli were the Curetes, or Corybantes, who dwelt upon the mountains, under the shade of trees, and in caves, the art of building houses being then un-

known. They are said to have brought men to live together in communities, and to have taught them to manage flocks, to break horses, to hunt, &c.

Subsequently the island was settled by colonies from Egypt, Phœnicia, and Phrygia, and the monarchical form of government long prevailed in the country, over which Minos is said to have ruled in 1406 B.C., who became celebrated for his justice, and the body of laws which he compiled. After the Dorian invasion of the Peloponnesus, bodies of Dorian and Achæan emigrants settled in the country, and a form of government was ultimately introduced by the republicans. The sovereign power was vested in a senate of thirty members, whose decisions did not require the force of laws till confirmed by the suffrages of the people. Next in authority to the senate were the *cosmi*, who were chosen from the body of the people, and from them were appointed the senators, who were not responsible for anything while *cosmi*, but who became responsible as soon as they took their seats in the senate. Between these magistracies a proper balance was preserved. The Romans sought a specious pretext for attacking and subjugating Crete, which had always been perfectly independent. They changed the government of the island, subjected it to tribute, and converted it into a Roman province. It afterwards fell into the hands of the Venetians, from whom the Ottomans took it.

68

B.C.

67

B.C.

2. *Cyprus*.—This island extends from east to west along the coast of Cilicia. The honey, wine, oil, wool, and copper of Cyprus are much commended by the ancients. This island is supposed to have been first discovered by the Phœnicians, who established in it a colony by whom it was peopled.

Without doubt, the government of Cyprus was monarchical. The island was divided among several petty sovereigns, each of whom reigned with an uncontrolled authority till the time of Cyrus the Great. This prince subdued them by his generals, but left them in possession of their respective kingdoms, obliging them only to pay an annual tribute to him and his successors, and to send supplies of men, money, and ships, when required. The Cyprian princes quietly submitted to the Persians till the reign of Darius, the son of Hystaspes, when, being encouraged by Onesilus, king of Salamis, they at-

557

B.C.

500

B.C.

tampted without success to shake off the yoke. Under the successors of Alexander, Cyprus passed from Antigonos of Syria to the kings of Egypt. Alexander, one of the kings of Egypt, being stripped of his territories, made the Romans his heirs when he died. They, however, permitted the Ptolemies to retain possession of the island till an occasion offered, when a decree was passed for seizing Cyprus, though the king on the throne was declared a friend and ally of Rome, and had done nothing to incur the displeasure of the senate. It was restored to Egypt by Cæsar in 47 B.C. ; but on the elevation of Octavian to the supreme power in Rome, it was made an imperial province in 27 B.C. Five years later it returned to the condition of a senatorial province. It was occupied by the Saracens for a short time in 648 A.D.

## CHAPTER XV.

### THE COUNTRIES AND STATES OF ASIA MINOR.

#### 1. TROAS ; OR THE TROAD.

TROAS, or the Troad, was bounded by the Hellespont on the north, the Gulf of Adramitium on the south, the *Ægean* Sea on the west, and Mydia on the east. The inhabitants of Phrygia Minor, called Trojans, from Troy, the metropolis of their country, were indisputably a very ancient people. Their trade was very flourishing ; and they rose to a considerable pitch of splendour and magnificence.

Teucer is commonly supposed to be the founder of the Trojan monarchy. He was succeeded by his son-in-law, Dardanus, who extended the boundaries of his kingdom, and enacted many salutary laws. Dardanus was succeeded by his son Erichthonius, after whom came Tros, the father of Ganymedes, who, having occasion to pass through the territories of Tantalus, king of Sipylus, was detained by him, and so brutally treated that he died. From this prince Phrygia Minor was denominated Troas, and its metropolis, Troy. Tros was succeeded by his son Ilus, who devoted the whole of his time to the improvement of his territories, the emendation of his laws, and the felicity of his people. His son and successor, Laomedon, built a citadel with the treasures that were deposited in the temples of Neptune and Apollo. His inhospitable treatment of Jason and the other Argonauts occasioned

311

B.C.

58

B.C.

1480

B.C.

1263

B.C.



a war, which terminated in his own death, and the reduction of his metropolis.

In the reign of Priam happened the memorable war between the Greeks and the Trojans. The cause of this unhappy war was the abduction of Helen. The Greeks employed in this expedition upwards of 1000 ships; and all the powers of Greece, except the Acarnanians, were engaged in the war. The city of Troy held out against these forces for ten years (1194—1184 B.C.); but, besides the Trojans, the Greeks had to contend with many other enemies, for all Phrygia, Mysia, Lycia, and the greatest part of Asia Minor, espoused the cause of the besieged, and even the Thracians and Ethiopians rendered them assistance. At length the Greeks carried the citadel by stratagem, and after setting it on fire, plundered the town, and massacred the inhabitants in the confusion that followed. Thus perished the kingdom of Troy, after subsisting, from Teucer to Priam, 296 years.

## 2. MYSIA.—PERGAMUS.

This country was bounded on the north by the Propontis, on the east by Phrygia, on the south by Lydia, and on the west by Ætolia and the Ægean Sea. Pergamus, the chief city of Mysia, was enriched with a library, containing 200 choice manuscripts, for the transcribing of which parchment was here first invented, and called by the Latins *Charta Pergamena*. Here, also, was invented those costly hangings known by the name of tapestry.

The kingdom of Pergamus received its denomination from the city of that name in the province of Mysia, which was its capital. It never had any certain or fixed limits. The kings of Pergamus made a considerable figure among the princes of Asia, and were very serviceable to the Romans in all their Asiatic wars.

The founder of the kingdom of Pergamus was Philetærus, a Paphlagonian eunuch of mean descent, who had been appointed governor of Pergamus by Lysimachus of Thrace, to take charge of the treasure that

he had collected there. Philetærus revolted against his master, and possessed himself of the treasure. He was succeeded in 263 B.C. by his brother, who took the name of Eumenes, and subdued a considerable part of Asia. On the death of Eumenes Attalus I. succeeded to the sovereignty, and assumed the title of king. He es-

283  
B.C.

241  
B.C.

poused the cause of Rome with uncommon vigour against Philip of Macedon, and died suddenly of an apoplexy. He was a generous patron of literature and learned men, and wrote several books, which are occasionally quoted by Strabo, Pliny, and Artemidorus.

He was succeeded by his eldest son, Eumenes II., who renewed the alliance with Rome, and embraced every opportunity of signalizing himself on behalf of that republic. By his assistance the Romans defeated Antiochus the Great at the battle of Magnesia, and, therefore, rewarded him by bestowing on him the provinces taken from that prince, among which were Mysia, Lydia, Phrygia, and Pisidia. Eumenes, however, was soon obliged to implore their assistance against Prusias, king of Bithynia, who, in concert with Hannibal, invaded his dominions, and defeated him in a naval engagement with considerable loss. The Romans immediately sent ambassadors, who effected a mediation between the contending monarchs.

Instead of assisting the Romans against Perseus, king of Macedon, Eumenes offered to stand neuter, if that prince would pay him 1000 talents, and procure him a peace from the Romans for 1500 more. The Romans, being informed of these proposals, were so exasperated, that they encouraged his brother Attalus to request the kingdom for himself, and enacted a law that Eumenes should be prevented from entering their capital. Alarmed at this, the king sent his two brothers, Attalus and Athenæus, to plead his cause at Rome; but the senate were inflexible, and appeared obstinately bent on his destruction. Their designs, however, were frustrated by a fit of sickness, which put a period to the king's life. Eumenes II. collected a large and valuable library.

Attalus II. had no sooner ascended the throne than he found himself at war with Prusias, king of Bithynia, who invaded his dominions, and made himself master of the royal city of Pergamus. The Romans, however, compelled Prusias to make peace and resign his new acquisitions. Afterwards Nicomedes, the son of Prusias, with the assistance of Attalus, made war upon his father, whom he chased from the throne, and finally caused to be put to death. On the death of Attalus II. the crown devolved on the son of Eumenes II.

Of Attalus III. nothing more need be said than that he

was cruel and tyrannical in disposition. At his death, which happened in 138 B.C., he left all his effects to the Romans, the republic seized on his kingdom, and reduced it to a province, under the name of Asia Propria. However, Aristonicus, the next heir, boldly put in his claim, and, with the assistance of the Pergamians, bravely contended with the Romans for some time; but at length the whole kingdom was reduced to the form of a prætorian province, and divided into several districts, each depending on the metropolis, where the Roman prætor resided.

138  
B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Kingdom of Pergamus founded by Philetærus of Paphlagonia .....	B.C. 283	Syria: his dominions greatly increased .....	B.C. 190
Attalus I. sides with Rome against Philip V. of Macedon .....	„ 211	War between Attalus II. and Prusias of Bithynia .....	„ 159
Eumenes II. fights with Romans against Antiochus the Great of		Accession of Attalus III. ....	„ 138
		Death of Attalus III., who leaves his kingdom to the Romans...	„ 132

## KINGS OF PERGAMUS.

Philetærus .....	B.C. 283	Eumenes II. ....	B.C. 197
Eumenes II. ....	„ 263	Attalus II. ....	„ 159
Attalus I. ....	„ 241	Attalus III. ....	„ 138

## 3. LYDIA.

Lydia was bounded by Mysia on the north, by Phrygia on the east, by Caria on the south, and by Ionia on the west. It was extremely fruitful in corn, wine, and other useful commodities, and was enriched with many valuable mines. The metropolis was Sardis, which was pleasantly situated on the banks of the Pactolus.

The Lydians were once a warlike people, but after the introduction of the Persian luxuries they became indolent, voluptuous, and effeminate. They were the first that coined gold and silver; that kept taverns, and invented public games, which were, therefore, called by the Romans *ludi*.

Historians mention three distinct dynasties of Lydian monarchs: the *Atyadæ*, so called from Atys; the *Heraclidæ*, or descendants of Hercules, who reigned subsequently to the Trojan war; and the *Mermnadæ*.

Of the first dynasty nothing is known. The death of Candaulus, the last king of the second race, who came to the throne about 735 B.C., was contrived by the queen and Gyges,

his favourite minister, and after murdering his master, Gyges married the queen, and ascended the throne in 718 B.C. Gyges was the first king of the Mermnad dynasty. His successors were Ardysus (680 B.C.), Sadyattes (631 B.C.), Alyattes (619 B.C.), and Croesus (562 B.C.).

Croesus, the son and successor of Alyattes, extended his conquests so successfully, that his kingdom became equally respectable with those of Media, Babylon, and Egypt. Having invited to his court Solon, the Athenian legislator, the Lydian monarch displayed before him the magnificence of his treasury, and asked him who was the happiest man he had ever known, expecting that he would give the preference to him. But Solon replied Tellus, a virtuous Athenian, who lost his life in the service of his country, and gave the king to understand that it was impossible to judge of the happiness of any man before his death.

When Cyrus was extending his conquest over all Asia, Croesus determined to oppose him ; and marching against the

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B.C.

Persians, was defeated, taken prisoner, loaded with chains, and condemned to perish in the flames. As he mounted the pile, he frequently exclaimed, "Ah! Solon! Solon!" Cyrus being informed of this exclamation, and of the lesson which Croesus had received from the Athenian legislator, pardoned the unfortunate monarch in consideration of the instability of human happiness. With Croesus ended the empire of the Lydians. After being held successively by Persia, Macedonia, and Syria, Lydia was taken by the Romans and given to Eumenes II., king of Pergamus, in 189 B.C. They regained possession of it at the death of Attalus III.

#### 4. CARIA.

The country called Caria was situated in the south-western corner of Asia Minor, and was washed by the sea on the west and south ; on the north it was bounded by Ionia and Lydia, and on the east by Phrygia and Lycia. At one period Caria is said to have been a dependency of Crete, but nothing definite is known of its early history until the time when its seaboard was colonised by the Dorians. Its destiny was similar to that of the other Greek colonies of Asia Minor, and it fell successively under the power of the kings of Lydia and Persia, and then into the hands of the Greeks and Romans. The Romans, after gaining possession of it, gave part to the king of Pergamus, and part to

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B.C.

the Rhodians. It was finally absorbed in the Roman province of Asia about 127 B.C.

#### 5. LYCIA.

This country was bounded on the north by Phrygia, on the east by Pisidia, and on the south-west by the Mediterranean. The soil is very fertile, the water pure, and the air salubrious.

The Lydians were once a very powerful and warlike people, and are highly commended for their temperance and mode of administering justice. They were first subjected by Crœsus, and afterwards by Cyprus (546 B.C.). Instead, however, of following the example of their neighbours by a voluntary submission, the natives of Xanthus attacked, with a handful of men, the numerous and victorious army of the Persians; but finding themselves overpowered by numbers, they retired into the city, and having set fire to the castle, in which were their families and riches, they returned to the engagement, and were all cut to pieces (445 B.C.). It was conquered by Alexander the Great in 333 B.C., and again in 188 B.C. by the Romans, who gave it to the Rhodians. It was subsequently merged in the Roman province of Asia 48 B.C.

#### 6. PISIDIA, PAPHLAGONIA, AND GALATIA.

There is little to be said about these parts of Asia Minor, which were generally tributary to, and included with, other larger states, and acquired no individual history of any importance. Pisidia, which lay between Phrygia on the north, Lycia on the west, and Cilicia on the east, was generally included in the last-named province. That portion of it which bordered on the Mediterranean was called Pamphylia. It was inhabited by wild tribes, which were never wholly subdued by any power that laid claim to the country.

Paphlagonia bordered on the Euxine, or Black Sea, and was bounded by Bithynia on the west, Galatia on the south, and Pontus on the east. Crœsus, king of Lydia, added it to his empire in 560 B.C., and when he was conquered by Cyrus in 546 B.C., it was annexed to Persia. After the death of Alexander the Great, it fell to the share of his general, Eumenes, in 323 B.C. In 290 B.C. it was annexed to Pontus by Mithridates III., and in 25 B.C. was incorporated in the Roman district of Galatia.

Galatia was bounded by Bithynia and Paphlagonia on the north, by Phrygia on the west and south, and by Pontus and

Cappadocia on the east and south-east. It was given by Nicodemus I. of Bithynia, to which state it originally belonged, to the Gauls, who passed from Greece into Asia Minor about 278 B.C. They defeated and killed Antiochus Soter, of Syria, in 261 B.C. Attalus I., of Pergamus, and Prusias I. of Bithynia, frequently came into collision with them and checked their power, which was rapidly increasing in Asia Minor, during their respective reigns. Cneius Manlius invaded the country in 189 B.C., and a desperate battle was fought, in which several thousands of the Gauls were slain. Their chiefs were treacherously slain by Mithridates VI. of Pontus, in 86 B.C., to prevent them from giving any support to the Romans in their operations against him. It was formed into a Roman province with Paphlagonia by Augustus in 25 B.C. The Gauls of Galatia, or Gaulish Asia, were divided into three tribes, of which the Tolistoboges occupied the west, the Tectosages the centre, and the Trocni the east.

#### 7. CILICIA.

Cilicia derived its name from Cilix, the son of Agenor, a king of Phœnicia. Cilix quitted his native land and formed a settlement in this country about 1470 B.C. Cilicia was bounded on the east by Mount Amanus, which separated it from Syria; on the north by Cappadocia, Isauria, the south-eastern part of Phrygia; on the north-west by Pisidia; and on the south by the Mediterranean. The eastern part, called Cilicia Campestris, was one of the most fertile tracts in Asia; but the western division was remarkably barren.

The Cilicians were a rough, unpolished race, whose treachery, injustice, and cruelty were proverbial. Before they settled in this country they were governed by their own princes, and divided into the Theban and Lyrnessian kingdoms. Sennacherib, king of Assyria, is said to have conquered the country about 681 B.C. In 610 B.C. Syennesis, then reigning in Cilicia, brought about a peace between the Medes and Lydians, who were fighting on the Halys. Cilicia was long subject to Persia, but on the extinction of the Persian empire, Cilicia became a Macedonian province. After the death of Alexander, it was subject to the Seleucidæ; and Pompey annexed it to the Roman empire, 64 B.C., after conquering the inhabitants who were noted for piracy.

#### 8. CAPPADOCIA.

Cappadocia, properly so called, is bounded by Pontus and Galatia on the north, by Armenia Minor on the east, by

Cilicia on the south, and by Phrygia on the west. Its productions are wines, crystal, jasper, alabaster, and onyx stone. In ancient times it abounded with mines of silver, brass, and iron, and was peculiarly famous for an excellent breed of horses. The religion of the ancient Cappadocians was much the same as that of the Persians. Of their laws no system is extant; and nothing can be said with accuracy of their commerce.

The first king of Cappadocia was a Persian nobleman, Pharnaces, who received the diadem, together with the princess Atossa, for having saved Cyrus the Great from a furious lion, which attacked him. The weakness of his successors rendered them an easy conquest; and soon after the death of Alexander the Great, Ariarathes I., who was then on the throne, was conquered and killed by Perdiccas, and constituted a Macedonian province under Eumenes. Ariarathes II., however, reinstated himself in the sovereignty, which he transmitted to his posterity. After having borne the yoke of the Persians, Greeks, and Syrians, the petty kings of Cappadocia fell under that of the Romans. In 290 B.C. Mithridates III., king of Pontus, took possession of Cappadocia, and in 288 it was annexed to Syria by Seleucus Nicator. At his death, however, which happened eight years later, it recovered its independence.

Ariarathes V assisted the Romans in a war against Aristonicus, of Mysia, and was slain in battle. He left six sons

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B.C.

by his queen, Laodice, who, dreading their authority, dispatched five of them by poison, and designed to exterminate the family, but the youngest was happily conveyed beyond the reach of her unnatural cruelty. This was Ariarathes VI., who, having espoused the daughter of Mithridates VI., was poisoned by the order of that monarch. After the tragical end of this monarch, the

Romans were desirous of giving the Cappadocians a republican form of government, but at length allowed them to choose a king. Accordingly, they elected Ariobarzanes I., who was an approved and a steady friend of the Roman republic. Archelaus was the last

93

B.C.

king of Cappadocia, and owed his elevation to the surprising beauty of his mother, Glaphyra, who had

36

B.C.

17

A.D.

captivated the heart of Marc Antony. In the reign of Tiberius, this prince was summoned before the senate, and, being falsely accused of

several heinous crimes, fell a victim to unconquerable grief, and his kingdom was reduced to the form of a Roman province.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Pharnaces becomes king of Cappadocia, about	B.C. 550	Ariarathes VI. poisoned by order of Mithridates VI., his father-in-law and king of Pontus	B.C. 96
Cappadocia subdued by Perdiccas	„ 322	Ariarathes VII. deposed by Pompey, who places Archelaus on the throne	„ 36
Cappadocia taken by Mithridates III., king of Pontus	„ 290	Death of Archelaus at Rome : Cappadocia made a Roman province	A.D. 17
Cappadocia occupied by Seleucus Nicator	„ 283		
Recovers independence at death of Seleucus	„ 280		
Death of Ariarathes V. in battle	„ 130		

#### KINGS OF CAPPADOCIA.

Pharnaces, about	B.C. 550	Ariarathes IV.	B.C. 220
Datames	„	Ariarathes V.	„ 162
Ariamnes I.	„	Ariarathes VI.	„ 130
Ariarathes I.	„	Ariobarzanes I.	„ 93
Eumenes (Governor)	„ 322	Ariobarzanes II.	„ 63
Ariarathes II.	„ 315	Ariarathes VII.	„ 42
Ariamnes II.	„	Archelaus	„ 36
Ariarathes III.	„		

#### 9. PHRYGIA.

Phrygia Proper was bounded on the north by Bithynia and Galatia ; on the east by Cappadocia ; on the south by Cilicia, Pisidia, and Lycia ; and on the west by Mysia, Lydia, and Caria.

The Phrygians were said to be descended from a tribe of Thracians, called Bryges, which migrated from Thrace into Asia Minor at a very early period. Their commerce was probably very considerable, and their city of Apamea is said to have been the chief emporium of all Asia Minor. They possessed a competent skill in geography, geometry, and astronomy, with a great knowledge of music. Being much addicted to superstition, they had many idols ; but their principal deity was the goddess Cybele, who was represented by a woman sitting in a chariot, drawn by four lions, crowned with towers, holding a key in her hand, and attired with a garment embroidered with flowers of different colours.

One of the most famous of the Phrygian kings was Gordius, who was raised from the plough to the throne. A sedition



having broken out in the country, the oracles advised the Phrygians to commit their government to a king, and observed, that the first man who, after the ambassador's return, should visit, in a cart, the temple of Jupiter, was destined by the gods to wear the diadem. Gordius immediately appeared riding in his cart, and was proclaimed king of Phrygia. He consecrated his cart to the goddess, called Regal Majesty; and to its beam attached a knot, which was so artfully woven that the oracle promised the empire of the world to him who should untie it. Alexander the Great cut it with his sword, and thus fulfilled or eluded the prediction.

He was succeeded by his son Midas, respecting whom the oracle uttered a prediction, in consequence of a swarm of ants conveying their stores into his mouth while he was sleeping. "He shall acquire immense riches," said the oracle, and the prophecy was verified.

Some other kings are mentioned, of whom we know little more than their names. Croesus, king of Lydia, subdued Phrygia, and held it as a province till he was conquered by the resistless arms of Cyrus the Great. The country was entered by Agesilaus, king of Sparta, when he marched against Persia (395 B.C.). When Persia was conquered by Alexander the Great in 333 B.C., Phrygia was placed under the government of Antigonus. In 282 B.C. Seleucus, king of Syria, added Phrygia to his dominions. After the overthrow of Antiochus the Great at the battle of Magnesia by the Romans in 190 B.C., the conquerors gave Phrygia to Eumenes II., king of Pergamus, who was in alliance with them. It came ultimately into the possession of Rome at the death of Attalus III., king of Pergamus.

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B.C.

#### 10. PONTUS.

This country was bounded on the north by the Euxine Sea; on the east by Colchis; on the south by Armenia Minor and Cappadocia; and on the west by the river Halys, Paphlagonia, and Galatia. The air is very salubrious, the hills are generally covered with olive or cherry trees, and the plains produce exuberant crops of grain. The cherry tree, indeed, is said to have been brought from Cerasus, a town in the east of Pontus. The people of Pontus were celebrated for their extraordinary skill in working iron, and fabricating steel armour. Their chief deities were Ceres, Jupiter, and Neptune, to whom they offered burnt sacrifices.

Pontus was the country of the Amazons, and was visited by the Argonauts on their way to Colchis. This, and all the countries bordering on the Euxine Sea, were successively subdued by the Medes and Persians, the latter of whom erected Pontus, which had hitherto been a part of Cappadocia, into a kingdom, and bestowed the sovereignty on Artabates, in the reign of Darius, the son of Hystaspes. From this period, the kings of Pontus were feudatories to the Persian empire till the reign of Ariobarzanes I. (480 B.C.), who shook off the yoke, and greatly extended his dominions; and Mithridates III., in 290 B.C., added Cappadocia and Paphlagonia to the crown of Pontus.

Pharnaces I., the son of Mithridates IV., not many years  
 182 after his accession to the throne, took the city of  
 B.C. Sinope by assault, and attacked the territories of  
 Eumenes II., king of Pergamus. These proceedings  
 occasioned a war with the Roman republic, in which his dominions were invaded, and he was compelled to make peace on very disadvantageous terms. He was succeeded by his son, Mithridates V., who entered into a strict alliance with the Romans, for whom he performed some important services, and who bestowed on him Phrygia Major.

On his death, his son, Mithridates VI., assumed the regal authority at the age of eleven years. He commenced his reign with the most inhuman and un-  
 120 natural acts of cruelty. That he might accustom  
 B.C. himself to hardship, he spent a great portion of his time in the exercise of hunting, passing whole months in the open fields, and frequently reposing amidst the frozen snow. He armed himself against deleterious potions with such powerful antidotes and preservatives, that the most exquisite poisons rather nourished than destroyed the constitution of his body. His thoughts aspiring to the absolute empire of Asia, he made a progress through all the kingdoms of the eastern continent, that he might observe the customs, laws, and manners of the inhabitants.

Shortly after, he resolved to reduce his ambitious projects to execution, and invaded the neighbouring kingdom of Paphlagonia, which he divided with his friend Nicomedes, of Bithynia. After the death of the Cappadocian king, Ariarathes VI., who happened to be his brother-in-law, and  
 96 was doubtless murdered by his orders, he entered  
 B.C. Cappadocia at the head of a formidable army, and

placed over the astonished Cappadocians a child eight years old, under the tutelage of Gordius, one of his creatures.

The growing power of the king of Pontus excited such jealousy in the breasts of the Romans, that they sent L. Cornelius Sulla, into Cappadocia to thwart his measures; and Mithridates withdrew from Cappadocia and Paphlagonia. At length, by means of a dispute about the succession in Bithynia, war was formally declared between the Romans and Mithridates, who had espoused different sides. 89  
B.C.

The king of Pontus, however, having persuaded many of the neighbouring nations to enlist under his standard, boldly attacked the enemy, soon drove the Romans out of Asia, and over-ran Phrygia, Mysia, Caria, Lycia, and the adjacent countries. The free cities 88  
B.C.

of Asia threw open their gates, and, by voluntary submissions, escaped the fate of those who had opposed his progress. Mithridates took ample, though diabolical revenge on the Romans. Archelaus, commander-in-chief of his army, made a successful incursion into Greece; and the prince Ariarathes entered and occupied the kingdom of Macedon. Other generals were equally successful, and Mithridates soon became master, not only of Asia, but of all Greece and the neighbouring islands, except Rhodes, as far as the Cyclades.

These successes were at length checked by the Romans, who, hearing that the king of Pontus had projected an invasion of Italy, sent Sulla, a brave and experienced commander, into Greece. Athens was taken in 86 B.C., and in the following year the armies of Sulla and Archelaus engaged near Chaeronea, in Boeotia, the latter was defeated, with the loss of about 100,000 men. At length, after another defeat at Archomenus, in 85 B.C., and the expulsion of his troops from Macedonia, Mithridates concluded a peace with Sulla, and

84  
B.C. consented to relinquish all his conquests, and confine himself within the boundaries of Pontus, to release all who had been taken captive during the war, and to deliver up to the Roman general eighty ships, with their arms and ammunition, pay the expenses of the Roman army during its stay in Asia, and 3000 talents for the expenses of the war. Thus terminated the contest which is known as the First Mithridatic War.

This peace was merely a truce. A collision ensued in 83 B.C. between Mithridates and the Roman general Murena,

who invaded Pontus because he said Mithridates had not been quick enough in evacuating Cappadocia. The war, however, was stopped by Sulla, who ordered Murena to withdraw from Pontus, and peace was renewed in 82 B.C., on the terms previously agreed. At length, the quarrel between the

**74** Romans and Mithridates broke out afresh, about  
 B.C. the possession of Bithynia, which Nicomedes III. had left to the Roman people. Accordingly, Mithridates invaded Paphlagonia, Bithynia, and the provinces of Asia; and Tigranes, king of Armenia, attacked Cappadocia. The Roman senate, on hearing of these transactions, dispatched the consul Lucius Licinius Lucullus into Asia, and entrusted Marcus Aurelius Cotta, the other consul, with a fleet to guard the Propontis and Bithynia. Mithridates having defeated Cotta, with great slaughter, by land, before Chalcedon, ordered his admiral to sail into the harbour and destroy his fleet, which was easily performed, and Mithridates then laid siege to Cyzicus. Fortune, however, soon declared in favour of Lucullus, who compelled the king of Pontus to raise the siege of Cyzicus, and putting to sea, gained an important victory over the fleet of Mithridates, near the island of Lemnos. He then subdued Bithynia and Paphlagonia, and, entering the fertile plains of Pontus, defeated Mithridates, with great loss, and compelled him to retire with a small retinue to the court of Tigranes, king of Armenia (71 B.C.).

Lucullus reduced all Pontus, and sent to inform Tigranes that if he did not deliver up Mithridates he would declare war against Armenia. This embassy proving unsuccessful, an engagement took place between Lucullus and the Armenians, in which the latter were defeated with considerable loss. Mithridates, however, encouraged his ally to levy a fresh army, and acted with such vigilance, that, during the absence of Lucullus, he defeated the Romans in several engagements, and expected to drive them effectually out of Pontus.

Pompey being appointed to the command of the Roman army, sent proposals of peace to Mithridates, which the king of Pontus not only rejected, but was persuaded, by the deserters in his army, to swear that he would never form any alliance with Rome. Two battles enabled the Roman general to disconcert all the plans of

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 B.C.

**70**  
 B.C.

**67**  
 B.C.

Mithridates, whom Pompey again expelled from the kingdom of Pontus. He also reduced all the fortresses that were still garrisoned by the king's troops, and possessed himself of immense treasure in gold, silver, and other valuables. 64  
B.C.

Having completed the conquest of Pontus, Pompey marched his troops into Syria; but no sooner was he withdrawn, than Mithridates, who had lain concealed in the territories of a Scythian prince, reappeared in his kingdom, and assembled all his subjects capable of bearing arms. However, the affairs of the king of Pontus were soon perplexed by a public rebellion; and he was deserted by those on whom he had placed the most implicit confidence. At length he adopted the resolution of marching through the Cimmerian Bosphorus, Scythia, and Pannonia, and of invading Italy with the assistance of the Gauls. But while the army lay encamped at Panticapæum, Pharnaces, the king's favourite son, formed a powerful faction among the soldiers, who, on his offering to lead them back into Pontus, proclaimed him king with loud and repeated acclamations. When Mithridates was informed of this alarming rebellion, he went to appease the tumult; but this measure proving ineffectual, he endeavoured to excite the compassion of his son. Finding all

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B.C.

means ineffectual, the wretched monarch drank poison, but this did not take effect on him; and the king, after wounding himself with his sword, was killed by a Gaulish soldier. Such was the end of Mithridates, who subdued twenty-four nations, and could speak their languages as fluently as his own. He possessed a competent knowledge of physic, and wrote in the Greek tongue a learned treatise on botany. He is to be admired for the equanimity with which he bore many of his misfortunes.

Pharnaces presented the body of his father to Pompey; and having received the kingdom of Bosphorus from the conqueror, together with the appellation of "an ally of Rome," he ordered all the commanders in Pontus to surrender their castles and treasures to the Roman general, who thus acquired

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B.C.

immense wealth. Pharnaces, however, took advantage of the civil dissensions at Rome, to obtain possession of Armenia and Cappadocia. He was, therefore, attacked by Julius Cæsar, who defeated him, and who in writing to the Roman senate respecting his victory, said, "I came, I saw, I conquered." Pharnaces was after-

wards killed, at Zela, in Pontus (46 B.C.), in an engagement with Asander, one of his generals, to whom Augustus subsequently gave the kingdom of Bosporus.

On the death of Pharnaces, Pontus was made a Roman province. During the second triumvirate, Marc Antony bestowed it on Darius, the son of Pharnaces, who was succeeded by Polemon, the son of a Laodicean orator, called Zeno. Polemon II., son of the last prince, was raised to the sovereignty on the demise of his father; but he dying without issue, the kingdom of Pontus was dismembered, and added to the provinces of Galatia, Bithynia, and Cappadocia.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Pontus, the realm of the Amazons, visited by the Argonauts ...	B.C. 1263	end of First Mithridatic War .....	B.C. 84
Ariobarzanes becomes king of Pontus .....	" 480	Second Mithridatic War provoked by Murena .....	" 83
Mithridates III. takes possession of Cappadocia and Paphlagonia.....	" 290	Outbreak of Third Mithridatic War ...	" 74
Pharnaces I. attacks Eumenes II. of Pergamus .....	" 182	Successes of Lucullus in Pontus.....	" 73
Accession of Mithridates VI., called the Great .....	" 120	Flight of Mithridates to Tigranes, of Armenia .....	" 71
Attack of Mithridates on Cappadocia, etc...	" 96	Reverses of Lucullus, and recovery of Pontus by Mithridates...	" 70
First Mithridatic war begins: Mithridates enters Greece and Macedonia .....	" 88	Pompey takes command of Roman army	" 67
Defeat of Archelaus at Charonea .....	" 85	Mithridates driven out of Pontus.....	" 64
Sulla victorious again at Orchomenus, and		Death of Mithridates at Panticapæum .....	" 63
		Defeat of Pharnaces by Julius Cæsar, and Pontus made a Roman province .....	" 47

## KINGS OF PONTUS.

Ariobarzanes I. ....	B.C. 480	Mithridates IV. ....	B.C. 240
Mithridates I. ....	"	Pharnaces I. ....	" 190
Ariobarzanes II. ....	" 363	Mithridates V. ....	" 156
Mithridates II. ....	" 337	Mithridates VI. ....	" 120
Mithridates III. ....	" 302	Pharnaces II. ....	" 63
Ariobarzanes III. ....	" 266		

## 11. BITHYNIA.

This country was bounded on the north by the Euxine on the east by the river Parthenius, which divided it

from Paphlagonia ; on the south by Mount Olympus and the Rhyndacus, which divided it from Mysia ; and on the west by the Thracian Bosphorus and Propontia. It contained several handsome cities, was well watered, and abounded with most of the necessities of life ; but the greatest part of its once fertile soil is now totally destitute of cultivation, and its largest cities are either laid in ruins, or dwindled into contemptible villages.

The earliest mention of Bithynia in history is its subjugation by Croesus, king of Lydia. It was afterwards taken, with Lydia, by the Persians ; but, about 430 B.C., Dædalsus, the chief of Bithynia, declared the independence of the country, and assumed the title of king. In 401 B.C. the "Ten Thousand," under Xenophon, met with much opposition from the Bithynians in marching through the country on their way home from the field of Cunaxa to Greece. Alexander III. of Macedon, sent troops against them, who were repulsed, and Lysimachus, of Thrace (281 B.C.), was also defeated in an attempt to subjugate the country.

Nicomedes I. invited the Gauls into Asia to aid him in

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B.C.

securing the throne against the attempts of his brother Zipoetes. After Ziela, who was killed in 228 B.C. by the Gauls, for an attempt against the lives of their chiefs, the throne of Bithynia was occupied by Prusias I., who, during the Mithridatic war, professed a warm regard for the Romans ; but he granted an asylum to Hannibal, their implacable enemy, and, at the instigation

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B.C.

of that eminent commander, invaded the territories of the king of Pergamus. These proceedings having roused the jealousy of the Romans, they demanded Hannibal ; and Prusias was at length obliged to execute the orders of the conscript fathers. The illustrious Carthaginian, however, having implored the gods to punish the perfidy of the king of Bithynia, immediately swallowed a deadly poison. Prusias I. was succeeded (180 B.C.) by his son Prusias II., who after-

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B.C.

wards assisted the Romans in the war against Perseus, king of Macedon. Hostilities broke out between the king of Bithynia and Eumenes II., king of Pergamus, which terminated in the defeat of the latter. Prusias, however, was obliged by the Romans to surrender all he had taken from Eumenes. He was hateful to his subjects, and despicable to foreigners, on account of his cruelty, cowardice, and disgusting behaviour. His person was deformed and his mind depraved.

Prusias II. was succeeded by his son, Nicomedes II., who was worthy of such a father, and who sacrificed all his brothers to his tyrannical ambition. On the death of this prince, who was assassinated, Nicomedes III. ascended the throne (91 B.C.). A war broke out (88 B.C.) between him and Mithridates VI., king of Pontus, in which the latter was victorious. He bequeathed his kingdom to the Romans, and immediately after his death, in 74 B.C., Bithynia was reduced to a province of Rome. It was united to Rome in 63 A.D., and in 103 A.D. Pliny the Younger was made governor of the country. It was while he was holding this post that he made the representations to Trajan respecting the Christians, which led to a persecution of them by that emperor.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Bithynia taken by the Persians.....	B.C. 546	Nicomedes III. defeated by Mithridates VI. of Pontus .....	B.C. 88
Dædalus founds kingdom of Bithynia .....	„ 430	Death of Nicomedes III., who leaves Bithynia to the Roman people ..	„ 74
Lysimachus invades Bithynia.....	„ 281	Union of Bithynia and Pontus .....	A.D. 63
Nicomedes I. gives Galatia to the Gauls.....	„ 278	The Goths invade and ravage Bithynia .....	„ 280
Death of the Carthaginian general Hannibal at Bithynian court ..	„ 183	Occupation of Bithynia by Seljukian Turks....	„ 1074
Prusias II. defeats Eumenes II. of Pergamus ..	„ 156	Tartars enter Bithynia ..	„ 1230

## KINGS OF BITHYNIA.

Dædalus .....	B.C. 430	Ziela .....	B.C. 230
Boteiras .....	„ 400	Prusias I. ....	„ 228
Bas .....	„ 376	Prusias II. ....	„ 180
Zipocles .....	„ 326	Nicomedes II. ....	„ 149
Nicomedes I. ....	„ 278	Nicomedes III. ....	„ 91

## CHAPTER XVI.

## ARMENIA AND THE COUNTRIES BORDERING ON THE EUXINE, OR BLACK SEA.

## 1. ARMENIA.

ARMENIA was bounded on the north by Iberia and Albania; on the east by Media; on the south by Mount Taurus; and on the west by Pontus and Cappadocia. It was agreeably diversified with hills and valleys; but produced scanty crops of corn, wine, &c., which were also extremely bad. The religion of the Armenians resembled that of the Medes and Persians, with some trifling variations; but their princi-



pal deity was the goddess Tanais, or Venus, to whom several magnificent temples were consecrated. Their language was similar to that of the Syrians; at least, they used the Syriac characters.

It is said that Armenia was first settled by Haik, son of Togarmah, and grandson of Japheth, who fled thither to escape from Belus, king of Assyria, about 2106 B.C. In 1725 B.C. it became subject to Assyria, but recovered its independence about 745 B.C. Armenia was subject to the successors of Alexander, king of Macedon. After the defeat of Antiochus the Great, of Syria, by the Romans (189 B.C.) Artaxias and Zariadras, governors of Armenia, revolting from their allegiance, caused themselves to be proclaimed kings of the provinces under their jurisdiction. This rebellion was crowned with extraordinary success; and Armenia from a small province, soon became a considerable kingdom in wealth, power, and extent. Having thus effected their ambitious purpose, the conquerors divided their territories into two kingdoms, of which the greater, or eastern part, was governed by Artaxias, under the name of Armenia Major, and the lesser, or western part, by Zariadras, under the appellation of Armenia Minor. These two parts were divided by the river Euphrates. All the attempts of Antiochus to recover the lost provinces were defeated, and he was compelled to conclude a peace, whilst his successful opponents entered into an alliance with the Romans, and thus secured their new kingdoms to themselves and their descendants.

Valarsaces, the brother of Mithridates I., king of Parthia, established himself in Greater Armenia in 149 B.C., and transmitted the crown to his posterity. Tigranes I., the fourth in descent from Valarsaces, had scarcely ascended the throne, when he was prevailed on by Mithridates, 95  
B.C. VI., called Eupator and the Great, to engage in a confederacy against the Romans, and marry his daughter Cleopatra. Tigranes sent a powerful army against Cappadocia, which the Roman senate had recently conferred on Ariobarzanes, drove the reigning prince from the throne, and bestowed the crown upon Ariarthes, son of Mithridates. In the meantime, the Syrians, being harassed by the perpetual contentions of the Seleucidæ, invited Tigranes to take possession of their throne, which he ascended with the unanimous suffrage of the people. His ambitious spirit being inflamed by this new addition of 83  
B.C.

strength, he led his victorious army into Armenia Minor, which he reduced in one campaign; marched against the Asiatic Greeks, whom he compelled to acknowledge him as their sovereign; invaded Cappadocia a second time, and brought back 300,000 prisoners, whom he employed in building a city on the river Nicephorius, near Mount Masius, which he denominated Tigranocerta.

Mithridates fled from Pontus to the court of his son-in-law, and though Tigranes refused to see and acknowledge him for a relation, he would not deliver him into the hands of the Romans. Upon this, Lucullus, the Roman general, immediately invaded Armenia; and having attacked Tigranes before Tigranocerta, defeated the king's troops with great slaughter. Tigranes quitted the field in the beginning of the engagement, and took refuge with Mithridates, but Lucullus followed him up and defeated the two kings near Artaxata. Soon afterwards a mutiny occurred in the army of Lucullus, who was obliged to withdraw his troops, and Mithridates and Tigranes occupied Pontus and Cappadocia. Pompey was now appointed to prosecute the war, and many engagements followed, in all of which the troops of Tigranes were defeated and put to the rout. At length, young Tigranes, prince of Armenia, revolted against his father and went over to Pompey. The unfortunate Tigranes, therefore, delivered himself into the hands of the Romans, and immediately after the conqueror restored to Tigranes the kingdom of Armenia, with the greatest part of Mesopotamia, and invested his son with the government of the provinces of Gordyene and Sophene. This arrangement, however, displeasing the young prince, he solicited the inhabitants of Sophene to withhold the royal treasures, which the Roman general had adjudged to his father. Pompey, therefore, loaded him with chains, and sent him to Rome.

Tigranes the elder, being restored to his paternal kingdom, cheerfully yielded the provinces of Syria, Cilicia, and Cappadocia, to the Romans, and was designated by the title of ally of the Roman republic. He considered himself bound to maintain a strict friendship with the Romans, and not only refused to succour Mithridates, after that monarch had been defeated by Pompey, but even offered a reward to any one who should put him to death. Tigranes died in his eighty-fifth year, and left the crown to his son Artavasdes. It should be said that the kings who then held Armenia were of Parthian

extraction, the dynasty having been founded in 149 B.C. by Valarsaces, the brother of Mithridates I., king of Parthia.

Artavasdes no sooner assumed the reins of government, than he projected the subjugation of Media, and advised Marc Antony to invade that country, offering to conduct him thither in person, and to assist him with all his forces. Antony readily embraced this proposal; but the Armenian, being privately reconciled to the king of

Media, led the Romans over such steep mountains, and through such bad roads, that they were obliged to leave most of their baggage and warlike engines behind. This treachery, however, being discovered, Artavasdes was loaded with chains, stripped of his treasures, and reserved to grace the triumph of Marc Antony at Alexandria.

The Armenians placed the crown on the head of his eldest son, Artaxes II.; but the Romans ultimately drove him from the throne, and bestowed the sovereignty on Tigranes II., a younger brother. After the demise of Tigranes II., his son, Tigranes III., was dethroned, and Augustus conferred the Armenian crown on Artavasdes, supposed to have been the son of Artaxes II. On the death of Artavasdes, Tigranes III. was restored. He was succeeded by his widow Erato, but she was compelled to abdicate, and Ariobarzanes, a Mede, was invested with the government, at the request of the Armenians.

After an interval of a few years, Vonones, who had been expelled from Parthia, ascended the throne, but it was not long before the country was subdued by the Parthians, in opposition to whom Tiberius supported Mithridates of Iberia, brother to Pharasmenes, king of that country. Mithridates, with the assistance of the Romans, triumphed over the Parthians; but his brother, Pharasmenes, sent his son, at the head of a powerful army, to invade Armenia. This unexpected irruption, and the defection of several Armenian nobles, induced the king to shut himself up in a fortress, which was defended by a Roman garrison. The unfortunate monarch, however, was betrayed by the governor into the hands of his iniquitous nephew, Rhadamistus, who caused him to be put to death, together with his unoffending children.

Rhadamistus, having cut off the whole family of Mithridates, took possession of the throne of Armenia; but Tiridates, brother to Volagases, king of Parthia, resolving to assert the ancient right of his family to

strength, he led his victorious army into Armenia Minor, which he reduced in one campaign; marched against the Asiatic Greeks, whom he compelled to acknowledge him as their sovereign; invaded Cappadocia a second time, and brought back 300,000 prisoners, whom he employed in building a city on the river Nicephorius, near Mount Masius, which he denominated Tigranocerta.

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**51**  
**A.D.**

**36**  
**B.C.**

the usurped kingdom, marched a powerful army into Armenia, and compelled the regicide to retire from the country.

The Armenians being continually harassed, and kept in a state of perpetual alarm, applied to the emperor Nero, who, after the country had been subdued by his generals, and Tiridates I. driven from the throne (60 A.D.), bestowed the sovereignty on Tigranes V., grandson of Herod the Great. After the death of Tigranes, Tiridates had the address to induce Nero to restore to him the diadem, which he and his successors possessed as homagers to the Roman empire.

In the reign of Trajan, when Artaxes III. was on the throne of Armenia, the whole country was reduced to the form of a Roman province; but, two years later, it was relinquished by Hadrian, who had become emperor of Rome on the death of Trajan. In the reign of Tigranes VI. an attempt was made by the Parthians to repossess themselves of Armenia, but they were driven out by the lieutenant of the Roman emperor, Marcus Aurelius. After the overthrow of the Parthian monarchy, Artaxerxes I. of Persia brought Armenia into subjection (232 A.D.), but in 259 A.D. the Romans placed Tiridates II. on the throne. In his reign Christianity was introduced. Armenia was frequently an object of contention between the Romans and the Persians, and in 387 A.D. it was divided between them; but in 442 A.D. the Persians obtained complete mastery over the country. Subsequently it was conquered by the Saracens (637 A.D.); then by the Seljukian Turks, who denominated the country Turcomania (1079 A.D.); and afterwards by the Tartars (1234 A.D.). None of these conquests, however, extirpated the race of Armenian kings.

Armenia Minor, which before the revolt of Zariadres and Artaxias, constituted part of Cappadocia, was bounded on the east by the Euphrates, on the south by Mount Taurus, and on the west and north by a long chain of mountains called Mons Scordiscus, Amanus, and Anti-Taurus. The valleys of this country are crowned with grapes and olives equal in quality to those of Greece. Zariadres maintained his usurped honours by forming a strict alliance with the Roman Republic. Artanes, the last male of this race, was slain in battle by Tigranes I., king of Armenia Major, whom the Romans expelled from his country, and bestowed the crown upon Ariobarzanes I. of Cappadocia. In the civil war, this prince espoused the cause of Pompey, but, after the battle of Phar-

salia, was generously pardoned by Julius Cæsar. On the demise of Ariobarzanes II., who had been educated by Cato, and enjoyed the unreserved friendship of Cicero, his family became extinct, and the kingdom was given, first to Artavasdes, king of Media, and then to Polemon, king of Pontus. It was afterwards successively governed by Archelaus, of Cappadocia; Cotys, of Bosphorus; Aristobulus, great-grandson to Herod the Great; and Tigranes V., of Armenia Major, his near relation. After 78 A.D., when Artaxes III. became king of both the Armenias, it shared the fate of the larger provinces.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Armenia said to be first settled by Haik, an Assyrian refugee ...	B.C. 2106	Tiridates I., brother of Volagases, king of Parthia, assumes the government.....	A.D. 51
Armenia rendered tributary to Assyria ...	„ 1725	Armenia constituted a Roman province by Trajan .....	„ 115
Independence of Armenia re-established .....	„ 745	Roman troops withdrawn from Armenia by Hadrian .....	„ 117
Armenia taken from Antiochus the Great by Artaxias and Zariadrea, about.....	„ 188	Tigranes VI. relieved from the Parthians by the Emperor Marcus Aurelius .....	„ 166
Valarsaces acquires sovereignty over Greater Armenia .....	„ 149	Armenia subjugated by Artaxerxes I. of Persia .....	„ 232
Tigranes I. of Armenia ascends the throne of Syria.....	„ 83	Tiridates II. replaced on the throne by the Romans .....	„ 259
Tigranes I. submits to Pompey, and is confirmed in possession of Armenia .....	„ 66	Christianity introduced into Armenia, about .....	„ 275
Artavasdes I. dethroned for treacherous conduct towards Rome .....	„ 34	Armenia divided between the Romans and Persians .....	„ 387
Venones expelled from Parthia, and called to the throne of Armenia .....	A.D. 16	The Persians obtain complete mastery over Armenia .....	„ 442

## KINGS OF ARMENIA.

149 B.C. to 442 B.C.

Valarsaces .....	B.C. 149	Tigranes II. ....	B.C. 20
Armsces .....	„ 127	Tigranes III. ....	„ 20
Artaxes I. ....	„ 114	Artavasdes II. ....	„ 6
Tigranes I. ....	„ 96	Tigranes III. (restored) ..	„ 5
Artavasdes I. ....	„ 36	Erato (widow of Tigranes III.) .....	„ 2
Artaxes II. ....	„ 30		

After the death of Alexander, prevailed in the succession.

## 2. COLCHIS.

Colchis, the modern Mingrelia, was bounded on the north, by Iberia on the south, and part of Pontus on the east, and the west. This kingdom was extremely olden times, and contained many events which gave rise to the celebrated fable and the Argonautic expedition. The Colchians are said to have descended from Egyptians, who came to Scythia by Sesostris; and they were long independent of their own. Colchis was at one time recovered its independence before the reign of Mithridates. Mithridates occupied it for a short time, but it was taken from him by Pompey in 65 B.C. Under the emperor Trajan, they voluntarily submitted to his authority; but as their country was not made a Roman province, they retained their ancient form of government.

## 3. IBERIA.

Iberia, which is now distinguished as Georgia, was bounded on the north by Moun-  
by Albania, on the south by Armen-  
Colchis. The ancient inhabitants



and might be compared to the Scythians and Sarmatians. Their form of government was monarchical; and after they submitted to the Romans (115 B.C.), they were ruled by their kings, who were tributary to Rome. The Romans relinquished all claim to the country about 364 A.D., soon after which time it became a Persian province.

#### 4. ALBANIA.

The pleasant and fertile tract of country, which the ancients designated by the name of Albania, and which is now part of Georgia, was bounded by Mount Caucasus on the north, by the Caspian Sea on the east, by Armenia on the south, and by Iberia on the west. The ancient inhabitants were a tall, comely, and vigorous race, equally famous for their courage and simplicity. They were totally unacquainted with weights, measures, and the use of money, and carried on trade entirely by exchange. Trajan visited the country in 116 B.C., and received the submission of the chiefs, but it was never thoroughly reduced by the Romans.

#### 5. BOSPORUS.

This ancient kingdom, which included all the provinces subject to the Bosporean princes, was bounded on the north by the Tanais, or Don, and its tributaries, on the east by Colchis, on the south by the Euxine Sea, and on the west by the Gulf of Carcinitis. It therefore comprised the Tauric Chersonese, or Crimea, in Europe, and the extensive tract which lies between the Euxine Sea and the Palus Mæotis, or Sea of Azof.

#### 6. THRACE.

Thrace was bounded by Mount Hæmus on the north; by the Euxine, the Hellespont, and the Propontis on the east; by the Ægean Sea on the south; and by Macedon and the river Strymon on the west. The Thracians were a brave and warlike people; but their minds were uncultured, and strongly tinged with cruelty. Their religion was the same as that of the Greeks; but the deities that they principally worshipped were Mercury, Mars, and Thrace, a son of Mars, from whom the country was said to have taken its name.

Though Thrace was sometimes called a kingdom, it was only an assemblage of petty states, independent of each other. Some of the princes united their neighbours under their sceptres, and assumed the diadem; but they rarely trans-

mitted it to their posterity. Had these people been unanimous in their councils, they might have become one of the most powerful nations on earth. The principal tribes of Ancient Thrace were Dolonci, Densetæ, Bessi, Cicones, Edoni, Bistones, Odomanti, Bryges, Pieres, Odrysæ, Autonomi, Mœdii, Crobyzi, Saphæi, and Celetæ.

The following are the principal events deserving notice in the history of Thrace, which may be best exhibited in the form of a

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

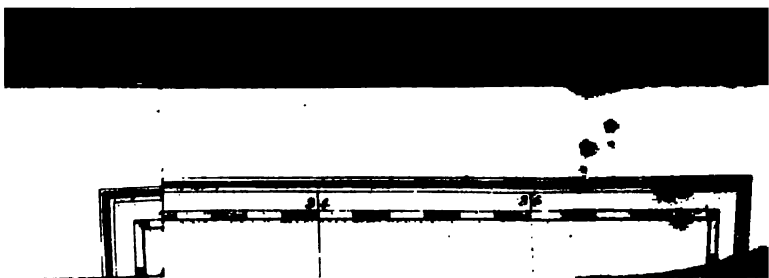
The Thracian Chersonese colonised by the Greeks first .....	B.C. 522	Seleucus Nicator, and killed, at Compedion.	
Thrace is invaded by Darius I., and rendered tributary .....	" 513	—Thrace occupied by Seleucus .....	B.C. 309
Thrace invaded by the Athenians .....	" 478	The Gauls, under Brennus, invade Thrace	" 279
The colony of Amphipolis founded by the Athenians .....	" 437	A great part of Thrace annexed to Egypt by Ptolemy III. ....	" 247
Invasion of Macedonia by the Odrysæ, under their king, Sitalces ...	" 429	Philip V. of Macedon invades Thrace, and acquires supremacy over the country .....	" 211
The Spartans, by the Peace of Antalcidas, attain chief influence over Greek cities in Thrace, in place of Athenians .....	" 387	Philip compelled by the Romans to relinquish Thrace, which is occupied by Antiochus the Great .....	" 196
Amphipolis seized by Philip of Macedon ...	" 358	Antiochus the Great compelled to yield up Thrace to the Romans	B.C. 188
The Thracian Chersonese ceded to Athenians by the Thracian chief, Cersobleptes ...	" 357	Thrace ultimately made a Roman province ...	" 27
Lysimachus obtains Thrace at partition of Alexander's empire ...	" 323	Invasion of Thrace by the Goths .....	" 255
Lysimachia, new capital of Thrace, founded by Lysimachus .....	" 281	The Goths permitted to settle in Thrace by Valens .....	" 376
Lysimachus attacked by		Invasion of Thrace by Attila .....	" 447
		Invasion of Thrace by Bulgarians .....	" 559

THE END.

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THE END.

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ANCIENT HISTORY.  
A SYNOPSIS OF  
THE RISE, PROGRESS, DECLINE AND FALL  
OF THE  
States and Nations of Antiquity.

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## PREFATORY REMARKS.

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IN pursuance of the plan sketched out in the Introduction to Volume I. of this series of *Manuals of Ancient History*; this—the third of the set—contains the History of Rome as a Kingdom and Republic; while in the fourth and last will be found the sequel—the History of Rome as an Empire. The sub-division is natural and useful, for the first part embraces the account of the rise and progress of Rome until it had attained the summit of national glory, and extended its dominion over all the countries that encircle the Mediterranean Sea, and stretch from its borders for hundreds of miles northward, eastward, and southward into the heart and centre of Europe, Asia, and Africa; while the second part recounts its decline and fall through the corruptions that crept in as wealth and power increased, and led to the abandonment of the purer patriotism and simpler manners that had distinguished the early Romans. These corruptions led to the establishment of the Empire, and the introduction of Imperialism, which failed through the unhappy tendency of human nature to run riot in frightful excesses as soon as absolute power is attained, and all wholesome restraints such as are found in a limited monarchy and constitutional government are withdrawn.

It may be useful to repeat here for the information of those who may not possess the complete series, that in Volume I. will be found a synopsis of the history, as far as it can be ascertained, of the principal states and kingdoms of Africa and South Western Asia, as known to the Ancients, and that it comprises an account of the early history of the world, and man from the creation to the rise of the first empires and kingdoms, and the history of Egypt, the Jews, Chaldea, Assyria, Babylonia, Media, Persia, Syria, Parthia, and Carthage, and the States of North Western Africa. Volume II. comprises the History of Greece, the

Greek Colonies in Asia Minor, Sicily, and the coast of the Mediterranean Sea, with Pontus, Cappadocia, Pergamus, Armenia, and the countries contiguous to Asia Minor, that could not be conveniently included in the first volume.

Although each volume of the series is complete in itself, it will be necessary to read it in connection with the others in order to gain a thoroughly clear knowledge of Ancient History, and to recognise the epochs at which the history of one country becomes interwoven with for a time, or completely absorbed in that of another.

At the end of every section in this as well as the other volumes, a Chronological Summary of the principal events narrated in the section has been introduced for the purpose of rendering this Ancient History especially useful in schools and colleges, and students preparing for examinations of any kind in which a knowledge of Ancient History is requisite.

LONDON, 1873.



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# A HISTORY OF ROME.

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## Part I.

### The Kingdom and the Republic.

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#### CHAPTER I.

##### INTRODUCTORY—EARLY RECORDS.

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##### 1. THE PEOPLES OF ANCIENT ITALY.

ITALY was anciently known by the different appellations of **Saturnia**, **Enotria**, **Hesperia**, **Ausonia**, and **Tyrrhenia**. It is said to have been called Italy from **Vitalus**, a king of the country. On three sides, it is surrounded by the sea ; and on the fourth, towards the north, it is enclosed by the Alps. It is about nine hundred miles in length, but very unequal in breadth, and in shape it resembles a man's leg.

In the earliest times, before the legendary history of the land began, it is believed that Italy was inhabited by the **Pelasgi**, a race which also occupied the neighbouring peninsula of Greece. Later the country was divided among a number of tribes, of whom the principal appear to be the **Siculi** or **Sicilians**, the **Rutulians**, the **Volscians**, the **Etruscans**, the **Ligurians**, the **Umbrians**, the **Marsians**, the **Venetians**, the **Sabines**, and the **Latins**. The modern **Genoa** was inhabited by the **Ligurians**. The **Venetians** held that part of their late domains which lies to the east of the **Adige**. The **Etruscans** and the **Umbrians** possessed those parts which recently formed the **Grand Duchy of Tuscany**, and the northern provinces of the **Papal States**, which are now absorbed into the new kingdom of Italy. The **Sabines**, the **Latins**, and the **Volscians** inhabited that tract which extends from the **Tiber** to the frontiers of **Naples** ; **Capua** and **Campania** are now the northern part of the province of **Naples** ; and the **Marsi**, the **Samnites**, and the **Apulians**, divided the rest of the country. The relative positions of these tribes may be best ascertained by reference to a map of Ancient Italy.

2. *ÆNEAS* IN ITALY—HIS DESCENDANTS—ORIGIN OF ROME.

*Æneas*, according to tradition, having escaped from the ruins of Troy, arrived on the coast of Latium, and was kindly received by *Latinus*, the king of the country, who, on his assisting him against the Rutulians, assigned him and his companions a portion of land, and afterwards bestowed on him his only daughter, *Lavinia*, in marriage, with the right of succession to the crown. On the death of his father-in-law, the kingdom of Latium accordingly fell to *Æneas*, who is said to have founded and built the city of *Lavinium*. He engaged the Rutulians and Tyrrhenians near the banks of the *Numicus*, and being hardly pressed by the enemy, fell into the river and was drowned.

*Æneas* was succeeded by his son *Ascanius*, *Iulus*, or *Julius*, who founded *Alba Longa*. His widow, *Lavinia*, finding herself pregnant, withdrew to a wood, where she was delivered of a son, whom she named *Æneas*, after his father, and *Sylvius*, from the place of his birth. *Ascanius* left a son, called also *Iulus*. The inhabitants of Latium, however, united *Alba* and *Lavinium* under one sovereignty, which they conferred on *Sylvius*, but made *Iulus* the chief priest.

After a succession of thirteen kings of the line of *Sylvius*, *Procas* bequeathed the throne to his eldest son, *Numitor*, but *Amulius*, the brother of *Numitor*, usurped the government, and after murdering his nephew *Lausus*, compelled *Rhea Sylvia*, *Numitor's* only daughter, to become a vestal virgin, or attendant in the temple of *Vesta*, by virtue of which office she was debarred from marrying. *Rhea Sylvia*, however, became the mother of twin sons, whose father, in palliation of her offence, she averred to be *Mars*, the god of war. The boys, placed in a basket of rushes, were thrown into the *Tiber*, and floated to the foot of mount *Aventine*, where they were found by *Faustulus*, the king's shepherd. This man carried them home to his wife, *Acca Laurentia*, who named them as her own. This woman was called by those who knew her, *Lupa*, or She-wolf; and hence arose the story that *Romulus* and *Remus*, as the boys were called, had been suckled in infancy by one of these animals.

After arriving at manhood the twins, having discovered their relationship to *Numitor*, who was still living, collected the shepherds, deposed *Amulius*, and reinstated their grand-

father on the throne. They then resolved to build a city upon those hills where they had formerly kept their flocks ; and Numitor assigned them a certain territory, and permitted any of his subjects to settle in their new colony. But a dissension arising between the two brothers, respecting the spot where the city should stand, Remus was killed, and, it is said, by Romulus himself. The city was called Rome, after the name of its founder, and was built upon the Palatine hill. It contained, at first, about a thousand houses, or huts ; and even the palace of Romulus was built of reeds, and thatched with straw. In order to increase its inhabitants, it was made a sanctuary for all malefactors, slaves, and such as were compelled for various reasons to leave their own part of the peninsula.

753

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Siege of Troy commenced B.C. 1193	Arrival of Æneas in Italy B.C. 1183
Troy taken and burnt ... „ 1184	Rome founded by Romulus „ 753

## CHAPTER II.

## THE SEVEN KINGS OF ROME.

753 B.C. to 509 B.C.

## 1. ROMULUS.

ROMULUS left the people at liberty to choose their king ; and they concurred in electing their founder. Accordingly, he was acknowledged as chief of their religion, sovereign magistrate of Rome, and general of the army. Besides a guard to attend his person, wherever he went, he was preceded by twelve men armed with axes tied up in a bundle of rods or boughs, who were to serve as executioners of the law, and impress the people with an idea of subjection.

The senate was composed of a hundred of the principal citizens of Rome, who acted as counsellors to the king. In his assembly, all the important business of the state was transacted, the king himself presiding, though every question was determined by a majority of votes. The senators were called *Patres*, or Fathers, partly from their venerable

appearance, for most of the first senators were old men, and partly on account of the fatherly care they were supposed to exercise over the citizens.

To the patricians, who were descendants of the senators, belonged all the principal offices of the state, as well as of the priesthood, to which they were appointed by the senate and the people. The plebeians, or lower orders, had the power of sanctioning those laws which were passed by the king or the senate. By their suffrages, all things relative to peace or war, the election of magistrates, and even the choosing of a king, were confirmed. By them, all enterprises against the enemy were proposed, while the senate possessed only a negative voice. Each plebeian had a right to elect from the patrician order a protector, who was to assist him with his advice and fortune, plead for him before the judge, and rescue him from every oppression. On the other hand, the client attached himself to the interests of his patron: he assisted in portioning his daughters, or paying his debts or his ransom; followed him in every service of danger, and gave him his vote when he became a candidate for any office.

The religion of that age consisted chiefly in a firm reliance on the knowledge of soothsayers, who, from observing the flight of birds and the entrails of beasts, pretended to direct the present, and look into futurity. Romulus ordained, that no new divinities should be introduced into public worship; that the priesthood should continue for life; and that none should be eligible to this office before the age of fifty. In order that the priests might be qualified to teach others, he ordered, that they should be the historiographers of the times.

Romulus divided the people equally into two tribes, to which a third was afterwards added, when the Romans and Sabines were amalgamated. To each tribe was assigned a different part of the city, and was again subdivided into ten curiæ, or companies, a hundred men with a hundred horsemen, ten to each curia.

A government thus wisely instituted, induced numbers to claim its protection; and it seemed to want only women to perpetuate its duration. By the advice of the senate, Romulus offered to cement the most strict confederacy with the Sabines, on the terms of intermarriages; but the Sabines rejected the proposition with disdain. Romulus, therefore, resolved to obtain by force what was denied to entreaty; and proclaiming



a feast in honour of Neptune, the Sabines and others came as spectators, bringing with them their wives and daughters. After the games had commenced, the Roman youth rushed among the strangers with drawn swords, and seizing the youngest and most beautiful women, carried them off by violence. The Sabine girls at first regarded with aversion the Romans who had thus made them their wives by force, but they soon learnt to love and esteem their captors.

750

B.C.

However, the citizens of Cænina, Antemnæ, Crustumerium, and other Sabine towns, resolving to revenge the common cause, made separate inroads into the Roman territory, but were defeated by Romulus. A severe war took place between the Sabines and the Romans, in which the former made themselves masters of the Roman citadel; but hostilities were at length terminated by the women, whom the Romans had violently seized, and who induced the combatants to lay aside their animosity, and live as friends. The two nations listened to this advice. It was agreed that Romulus and Tatius, king of the Sabines, should reign jointly in Rome with equal power and authority; that a hundred Sabines should be admitted into the senate; that the city should retain its former name, but the citizens should be called Quirites, and that both nations being thus united, such of the Sabines as were inclined, should be admitted to all the privileges of denizens of Rome. Tatius was killed about five years after, and Romulus once more became sole monarch in the state which he had founded. During the co-reign of Tatius, the equestrian order, an intermediate link between the patricians and the plebeians, was instituted.

747

B.C.

Elevated by success, Romulus enlarged his views, and affecting absolute sway, wished to control those laws to which he had formerly professed implicit obedience. This so enraged the senate, that the founder of Rome suddenly disappeared, and the multitude were taught to believe that he had been taken up into heaven.

716

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SYNOPSIS.

Rape of Sabine Women... B.C. 750	Romulus again sole King B.C. 742
Incorporation of Romans	Murder of Romulus by the
and Sabines..... „ 747	Senators ..... „ 716

## 2. NUMA POMPILIUS.

As Romulus left no heir, the city seemed greatly divided in the course of a successor; but after some time it was agreed, that the party which elected should nominate from the body of the other. Accordingly the choice being left to

715 the Roman part of the senate, they selected Numa  
B.C. Pompilius, a Sabine, who was about forty years of age, and had long been illustrious for piety, justice, moderation, and an exemplary life. He was skilled in all the learning and philosophy of the Sabines, and with reluctance accepted the dignity which was conferred upon him.

The new king was a good man, and an earnest lover of peace, and endeavoured to make his subjects pious, happy, and prosperous. He built many new temples, and instituted feasts; and led the people to respect his acts and orders, by pretending that they were suggested to him by the goddess Egeria. He built the temple of Janus\*, which was to be shut in the time of peace, and open in that of war; he added to the number of vestal virgins, who had very great privileges allowed them; instituted pontiffs; and founded the orders of the Salii and Feciales, two colleges of soldier priests. The Salii had charge of the sacred shields called *Ancilia*, made in imitation of the *Ancilia*, or Sacred Shield of Mars, which was said to have fallen from heaven, and which it was supposed would prevent Rome from being taken as long as it remained in the city; while it was the duty of the Feciales to deliberate on cases of aggression against Rome, and to declare war against the offenders, if it were just and necessary to have recourse to arms. He encouraged agriculture, and divided, among the lower orders of the people, those lands which Romulus had gained in war; softened the rigour of the laws relative to parents and children; regulated the Roman calendar, altering the number of the months from ten to twelve; and abolished all distinction between Romans and Sabines.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Numa Pom-	Roman Calendar reformed a.c. 710
pilius by the Senate ... a.c. 715	
	Death of Numa Pompilius .. 673

\* This god had two faces, looking different ways, denoting the prudence of considering both the present and the future.

## 3. TULLUS HOSTILIUS.

On the death of Numa, the sovereign power again devolved on the senate, with whom it continued till the people elected Tullus Hostilius for their king. This monarch was immoderately fond of war; and the Albans were the first people that gave him an opportunity of indulging his inclinations. But when the armies of the two nations were on the point of commencing the engagement, the Alban general stepped forward, and offered to decide the dispute by single combat. In each army were three twin brothers: those of the Romans were called Horatii; and of the Albans, Curiatii. They were all remarkable for their courage, strength, and activity; and to them it was resolved to commit the management of the combat. Two of the Horatii fell dead upon the spot; while the three Curiatii were each more or less severely wounded. The last of the Horatii, to separate his foes, pretended flight, and was followed by all the Curiatii, whom he successively attacked and killed. The Alban army immediately consented to obey the Romans. The victorious youth, returning triumphant from the field, found his sister lamenting the loss of her lover, one of the Curiatii, to whom she was betrothed. Transported with passion, he slew her in a rage; for this action the magistrate condemned him, but he obtained pardon by appealing to the people.

Hostilius quelled the insolence of the Fidenates and Veientes, and utterly demolished the city of Alba, the inhabitants of which were transplanted to Rome. He obtained a signal victory over the Sabines, and engaged in a doubtful war with the Latins. He died after a turbulent and warlike reign of thirty-two years, some say by lightning hurled at him by some offended deity of Rome, and others by assassination, contrived by some of his enemies, of whom a king of his character and disposition must have had many.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Tullus Hostilius by the Senate .....	B.C. 673	Conquest of the cities of Fidenæ and Veii.....	B.C. 665
Combat of Horatii and Curiatii, about .....	„ 669	Demolition of Alba.....	„ 664
		Death of Tullus Hostilius ..	642

## 4. ANCUS MARTIUS.

After an interregnum of about two years, Ancus Martius, the grandson of Numa, was elected king by the people, whose choice was confirmed by the senate. He inherited the piety and the virtues of his grandfather, to which he added the talents of a warrior. He conquered the Latins, whom he removed to Rome, and increased his own territories by the addition of part of theirs. He raised temples, fortified the city, built a prison for malefactors, and formed a sea-port at the mouth of the Tiber, called Ostia. He died after a glorious reign of twenty-four years.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Ancus Martius by the Roman Senate... B.C. 640	Foundation of the port of Ostia at the mouth of the Tiber..... B.C. 627
Conquest and removal of the Latins to Rome, about „ 635	Death of Ancus Martius... „ 616

## 5. TARQUINIUS PRISCUS.

Lucius Tarquinius Priscus, who was appointed guardian to the sons of the late king, had assumed the surname of Tarquinius, from the city of Tarquinii in Etruria, the place of his former residence. He was the son of a merchant of Corinth, named Demaratus, who, having acquired considerable wealth by trade, settled in Italy. Having married Tanaquil, a woman of family in the city of Tarquinii, the son of Demaratus removed to Rome. His courteous bearing, wealth, and profuse hospitality, gained him the esteem and admiration of the people, who, by his influence, were induced to set aside the children of the late king, and elect him their sovereign. He added a hundred members to the senate, which now increased the number to three hundred. He defeated the Sabines, and compelled them to accept peace, at the expense of a considerable part of their territories, and of Collatia, a large city on the Arno, above five miles east of Rome. He also obtained several advantages over the Latins, from whom he took many towns.

Tarquinius, having thus forced his enemies into submission, surrounded the city with stronger and more extensive walls; adorned the forum with porticoes; laid the foundation of

the Capitol, which, however, he did not live to finish ; and formed the *Cloaca Maxima*, a great sewer which carried into the Tiber the drainage and superfluous waters of Rome. He assumed the insignia of royalty, such as a crown of gold, an ivory throne, a sceptre with an eagle upon the top, and robes of purple ; and founded yearly games for the amusement of the people. For the exhibition of these games he built the *Circus Maximus*, or Great Circus. He was assassinated at the age of eighty, and in the thirty-eighth year of his reign, by the sons of Ancus Martius.

605

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Tarquinius Priscus by the Roman Senate .....	B.C. 616	Cloaca Maxima, or Great Sewer, constructed to drain Rome .....	B.C. 600
Foundation of the Capitol ..	615	Assassination of Tarquinius Priscus by the sons of Ancus Martius .....	578
Building of the Circus Maximus, or Great Circus ..	605		

## 6. SERVIUS TULLIUS.

On the death of Tarquin, Servius Tullius, who had married his daughter, secured his election to the vacant throne by his own address, and the intrigues of his mother-in-law.

578

However, he obtained the crown through election by the people, and not by nomination and election by the senate in the usual way. He then proceeded to effect a revision of the constitution by making a fresh territorial and social division of the state (by which, however, the old orders were left untouched), and forming a new popular assembly, which gave the plebeians a considerable share in regulating the government of the state. The whole population was first divided into thirty tribes, of which four were within the walls of Rome, while the remaining twenty-six were in the country without the walls. These tribes held general meetings in the forum at stated times, when inferior magistrates were elected and great public questions discussed. He next ordered an exact enumeration to be made of all the citizens of Rome, their children, and servants, with a just valuation of their property and estates, and having obtained this he proceeded to divide the people into five classes. The first class was subdivided into fourscore centuries, or companies, one half of which, being composed of the most aged and respectable, were to remain at home for

B.C.

the defence of the city, while the other half, composed of the youthful and the vigorous, were employed in the field. In the first class also were comprised the **560** *equites*—knights or horsemen—which consisted **B.C.** of eighteen centuries, six patricians, and twelve plebeians, with two more of the *fabri*, or machinists, who followed the camp—all having property worth 100,000 *ases*,\* or upwards, belonging to this class. The second class consisted of twenty centuries, or companies, and comprised those who were worth above 75,000 *ases*. The third class consisted of twenty centuries, and was composed of such as were worth 50,000 *ases*. The fourth class consisted also of twenty centuries, and was composed of those who were worth 25,000 *ases*. In the fifth class were thirty centuries, and the qualification was 11,000 *ases*. In this class were reckoned three centuries of trumpeters and musicians, and another century of *proletarii*, as they were called, or persons who had nothing to call their own, or whose property fell below 11,000 *ases*. The centuries of each class, excepting the four of the fifth class last enumerated, consisted half of *seniors*, or older men, and half of *juniors*, or younger men. Of these the old men were to remain at home for the defence of the city, while the more youthful were employed in the armies. It was also ordained that each century should supply an equal share to the exigencies of the government, and that the citizens, paying their taxes by centuries, should give their votes, in all public transactions, in the same manner, in a public assembly of the centuries, called the *Comitia Centuriata*, in which patricians and plebeians equally participated.

Tullius also ordered a numbering and valuation of the property of the Roman citizens to be made every lustrum, or period of five years. By this regulation, all the citizens, in complete armour, and in their respective classes, were to assemble once every five years in the Campus Martius, where they were to deliver in an exact account of their families and fortune. This monarch, who was eminent for justice and moderation, entertained the generous intention of laying down his power, and retiring into obscurity, after forming the

\* The *As* in the time of Tullius was a copper or brass coin, of 12 ounces in weight. It is difficult to determine its equivalent in English money, but it is supposed to have been worth a little more than three-pence.

kingdom into a republic. This noble design, however, was frustrated by his son-in-law, Tarquin, the son of Tarquinius Priscus, who, at the instigation of his ambitious wife, Tullia, assassinated Tullius after an useful and a prosperous reign of forty-four years.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Servius Tullius by the Roman people... A.C. 578	Revision of the Constitu- tion, and division of the people into 30 tribes ... A.C. 560
First Coinage of copper or brass money in Rome... " 577	Assassination of Servius Tullius by his son-in- law, Tarquin ..... " 534
First Quinquennial Cen- sus..... " 566	

## 7. TARQUINIUS SUPERBUS.

Lucius Tarquinius, who was afterwards called Superbus, or the Proud, placed himself on the throne in consequence of this parricide, and seemed to claim the crown by an hereditary right, without any regard to the senate or the people. His chief policy consisted in keeping the people always employed, either in wars or in public works, by which means he diverted their attention from the tyrannical authority which he exercised. He kept a guard of foreign mercenaries, who were ready to execute his orders, however cruel and unjust. He reduced the Sabines to submission, and took from the Volscians Suesza Pometia, a considerable town, about twenty-six miles east of Rome; but in subduing Gabii, another city of the Volscians, he was obliged to have recourse to stratagem, a practice not usual with the Romans.

A woman in strange attire introduced herself to Tarquin, and offered to sell nine books, which she said were composed by herself: but the king not knowing that she was one of the celebrated Sibyls of Cumæ, whose prophecies never failed, refused to buy them. She therefore departed, and burning three of the books, returned with the six, for which she asked the same price. Being once more despised as an impostor, she again departed, and burning the other three, returned with the remainder, still asking the same price as at first. The augurs advised the king to purchase the books; and the woman, having recommended the utmost care to be taken of them, suddenly disappeared. Tarquin chose proper persons to keep these books, which were deposited in a stone chest in the Capitol.

During the siege of Ardea by the Romans, Sextus, the king's

son, and Collatinus, a noble Roman, with some others, happened to discourse on the beauty and virtue of their wives, each man extolling his own with singular commendations. Collatinus offered to decide the dispute by putting it to an immediate trial, whose wife should be found possessed of the greatest beauty, and most sedulously employed at that very hour. This proposal was immediately agreed to, and, taking horse, they posted to Rome, where they found Lucretia, the wife of Collatinus, spinning in the midst of her maids, and portioning their tasks. They unanimously gave her the preference for beauty; and Sextus, forgetful of friendship and honour, determined to find means to make her unfaithful to her husband. He, therefore, visited her privately a few days after, and finding means to convey himself into her chamber at midnight, threatened, that, if she would not let him work his foul will, he would first kill her and one of her husband's slaves, and then report that he had detected and slain them in the commission of crime.

In the morning Sextus returned to the camp, and Lucretia, sending for her husband Collatinus, and for her father Spurius, informed them of the indelible disgrace which had befallen the family. She then stabbed herself with a dagger, and expired without a groan. Junius Brutus, a relative of the king, who had feigned to be almost an idiot to escape the king's jealousy, was so incensed at this brutal act of Sextus, that he caused the body of Lucretia to be exposed to the people, whose pity was soon changed into rage and ungovernable fury. The senate passed a decree, that Tarquin and his family should for ever be banished from Rome. Tarquin

510 immediately flew to Rome; but finding the gates

B.C. shut against him, he prepared to return to the camp. However, the same sentiments of humanity

which had impelled the citizens, had also by this time affected the army, who refused to receive him. Thus the tyrant, with his family, was obliged to seek a precarious asylum at Cære, a town of Etruria; and with Tarquin ended the kingly government of Rome, after it had continued two hundred and forty-three years.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Usurpation of Tarquinius B.C. 534	Rape of Lucretia, and abo-
Purchase of Sibylline Books „ 520	lition of Royalty in Rome a.c. 510



## CHAPTER III.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC FROM THE FIRST APPOINTMENT  
OF CONSULS TO THE INVASION OF THE GAULS.

509 B.C. to 309 B.C.

## I. ATTACKS OF THE TARQUINS ON ROME.

THE regal government being thus abolished, it was agreed, that the centuries of the people should choose from among the senators two annual magistrates, whom they called Consuls, and who were invested with the same power, the same privileges, and the same ensigns of authority as the kings. Brutus, the author of this revolution, and Collatinus, the husband of Lucretia, were the first who were raised to the dignity of consuls in Rome. Collatinus, however, being a relative of the Tarquins, and bearing the hated name Tarquinius, was deprived of his new rank by the senate and banished from Rome. He retired to Lavinium, where he died some years after. Valerius Publicola was appointed consul in his room.

Through the intrigues of Tarquin and his sons, a party was soon formed in the city in favour of the banished tyrant, and it was resolved that the king should be restored, and the consuls put to death. But a slave, named Vindicius, having accidentally hid himself in the room where the conspirators assembled, overheard their conversation, and laid open their designs to the consuls, who ordered them to be secured and brought to justice. Among the conspirators were found the sons of Brutus, who was obliged to sit as a judge on his own children, and ordered them to be beheaded in his presence. He beheld the cruel spectacle with a steady look and unaltered countenance, while the multitude gazed on with all the mingled sensations of pity, wonder, and horror.

Thus frustrated in the city, Tarquin prevailed on the Veientes to assist him, and with a considerable army advanced towards Rome. The consuls met him on the Roman frontiers. Brutus and Aruns, the son of Tarquin, attacking each other with ungovernable fury, fell dead upon the field together. A bloody battle ensued, in which the Romans claimed the victory, and Valerius returned triumphant to Rome.

Valerius enacted several laws, which abridged the power of

the senate, and extended that of the people. In particular, he ordained, that any citizen who had been condemned to death by a magistrate, or even to banishment or scourging, should

**508** be allowed to appeal to the people, and that their  
 B.C. consent should be given previously to the execution of the sentence. Valerius was chosen consul a

second time, and with him Horatius Pulvillus as his colleague. In the following year (507 B.C.) the same consuls were re-elected, and to Horatius fell the honour of dedicating the Capitol to the gods, while Valerius was absent from Rome on an expedition against the men of Veii.

In the meantime, Tarquin, having prevailed upon Lars Porsenna, king of Clusium, in Etruria, to espouse his cause, this prince led a numerous army against Rome, to which he laid siege. A furious attack was made upon the place ; the two consuls were carried off the field wounded ; and the Romans, flying in great consternation, were pursued by the enemy to the bridge, over which the victors and the vanquished were about to enter the city in mingled confusion. All seemed to be lost, when Horatius Cocles opposed himself singly to the enemy, and maintained the whole shock, till the bridge being broken down behind him, he threw himself into the Tiber, and escaped by swimming. However, Porsenna carried on the siege with vigour, and the Romans were several times reduced to great extremity. During the siege an attempt was made on Porsenna's life by Mutius Scævola, a young Roman, who, when taken, thrust his right hand into the fire and let it burn to show his contempt of death and pain, and told the Etruscan king that three hundred others as resolute and careless of life as himself, had sworn to kill him, and Porsenna, despairing of ultimate success, and caring more for his own safety than the restoration of Tarquin, withdrew from the Roman territory without exacting any conditions.

Tarquin next induced the Latins to espouse his interest, and took the most convenient opportunity, when the plebeians and senators were divided amongst each other, to make head against Rome. Among the poorer classes of the people great complaints had arisen, on account of the inequality of property, the partial distribution of the conquered lands, which the higher ranks generally contrived to engross to themselves, and of the harsh policy by which creditors could reduce their insolvent debtors to a state of slavery. There being no legal

restraint on usury, the poor, when once reduced to the necessity of contracting debts, were entirely at the mercy of their creditors.

When, therefore, the consuls began to levy men in order to oppose Tarquin, all the poor, and all who were laden with debt, refused to enlist, declaring that those who enjoyed the advantages of peace might undergo the fatigues of war, and insisting that their debts should be cancelled by a decree of the senate, as the only means of inducing them to take the field. In this exigence, the consuls proposed to the people to elect a temporary magistrate, who should possess absolute power over all ranks of the state, and even to set aside, if necessary, the laws of the commonwealth.

501

B.C.

Accordingly, Titus Lartius was created the first dictator\* of Rome; and surrounded with his lictors, and all the ensigns of ancient royalty, he completed the levies without resistance. After concluding a truce with the Latins, he laid down the dictatorship before the expiration of six months, which was the time limited for this office, but the harsh laws relating to debtors remained unaltered.

However, about three years after, a fresh attempt of Tarquin to regain the crown, rendered it necessary that

498

B.C.

another dictator should be appointed, and Aulus Postumius Albus was invested with that office. He defeated the Latins in a great battle, near the lake Regillus, in which Tarquin's three sons were slain. Tarquin himself was obliged to retire to the court of Aristodemus, king of Cumæ, in Campania, where he died at the advanced age of ninety years. The Latins once more implored a truce, and the dictator, after a triumph, laid down his authority.

496

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Establishment of Consular Government .....	B.C. 510	Institution of the Dictatorship, and quarrels between patricians and plebeians .....	B.C. 501
Commercial Treaty with Carthage .....	" 509	Battle of Lake Regillus—Romans victorious .....	" 498
Dedication of the Capitol by Horatius Pulvillus...	" 507	Death of Tarquin in exile, at Cumæ .....	" 496
Siege of Rome by Por-senna, king of Clusium ..	" 506		

\* To be dictator, it was necessary to have been first consul, though his office lasted only six months; during that time he was absolute master of the destinies of his country.

## 2. THE REVOLT OF THE SOLDIERS—TRIBUNES OF THE PEOPLE.

The soldiers having returned triumphantly from the field a second time, expected a remission of their debts; but, contrary to their hopes, the courts of justice were opened against them, and the prosecution of creditors revived with more than usual severity. This soon excited fresh murmurs. The senate chose Appius Claudius, a man of austere manners, a strict observer of the laws, and of unshaken intrepidity, for one of the consuls the ensuing year, and gave him for a colleague Servilius, who was of a humane and gentle disposition, and greatly beloved by the populace. When the complaints of the people were deliberated on, Servilius wished that all debts might be abolished, or, at least, the interest on them diminished; but Appius insisted that lightening the load from those who owed money was only throwing it upon those to whom it was due, and that every new compliance from the senate, served no other purpose than to increase the insolent demands of the people.

The citizens, who were apprized of the discordant sentiments of their consuls respecting their complaints, loaded Servilius with marks of gratitude, while they every where pursued Appius with threats and imprecations. They again assembled, held secret cabals by night, and meditated some new revolution, when an unexpected spectacle of distress roused all their passions, and at once fanned their resentment into a flame.

An aged Roman soldier, pale, wasted with famine, ragged, and laden with chains, but who showed in his air the marks  
 495 of better days, sought an asylum in the midst of  
 B.C. the people, as they were assembled on a public  
 occasion, calling on all around him for aid in his  
 extremity. He said, "I was born free; and I have fought  
 in eight-and-twenty engagements. I served in the last  
 war against the Sabines, in which my little patrimony  
 was not only neglected, but the enemy plundered my substance, and set my house on fire. In this situation I was forced for subsistence to contract debts, and then obliged to sell my inheritance to discharge them; but not being able to pay the whole, my creditor took me and my two children to his own house, and delivered me over to his slaves, from

whom, by his orders, I have suffered the most cruel treatment." He then stripped himself, and showed on his back the bleeding marks of recent stripes, and on his breast scars of the honourable wounds which he had received in fighting for his country.

This account, and the sight of his wounds, which were still fresh, produced an instantaneous effect upon the people, who flew to take revenge not only on the creditor of the soldier-slave, but on the general body of their oppressors. Appius sought safety in flight. Servilius, throwing himself into the midst of the tumult, entreated the people to be patient; engaged that the senate should redress their wrongs; and, in the mean time made proclamation, that no citizen should be arrested for debt, till the senate should issue further directions.

The conciliatory conduct of Servilius appeased for this time the murmurs of the people; and the senators were on the point of beginning their deliberations, when word was brought that an army of Volscians was marching directly towards Rome. The people, however, when summoned to march against the foe, unanimously refused to enlist; and those who had been imprisoned for debt, showing their chains, insultingly asked, "Whether these were the weapons with which they were to face the enemy." However, Servilius, by promising them a plenary redress of their grievances after their return, prevailed on them to enrol themselves under his command. But Appius, still fierce and uncomplying, again authorised the creditors to renew their severity, and the debtors were dragged to prison, and insulted as before. The Sabines, the Æqui, and the Volscians, made a fresh  
 494  
 B.C.  
 irruption; and the senate was obliged to create a dictator, who assured the people that their grievances should be redressed. But when the enemy had been defeated and subdued, Appius refused to comply, and brought over the majority of the senate to his opinion.

By these reiterated breaches of faith, the people were inflamed to a dangerous degree, and their military oath not allowing them to lay down their arms, or forsake their standards, they removed their ensigns, changed their commander, and, under the conduct of a plebeian, named Sicinius Bellutus, retired to a hill, afterwards called *Mons Sacer*, or the "Sacred Mountain," three miles from Rome. This

resolute proceeding had the desired effect. The senate deputed ten persons, at the head of whom were Lartius and Valerius, who had been dictators, and Menenius Agrippa, who was equally loved by the senate and the people. The dignity and popularity of these ambassadors procured them a favourable reception among the soldiers, who readily listened to what they had to say. The conference had continued for a long time, when Menenius Agrippa cleverly set before them the mutual relations and obligations of rich and poor, or those who were obliged to work and those who furnished money in exchange for labour of any kind, by the following fable:—"In times of old," said he, "all the limbs and members of the body, with common consent, resolved to revolt against the belly. They said that they knew no reason why they should toil in its service, while, in the meantime, the belly lay at its ease, and indolently grew fat upon their labours. Accordingly, they agreed to support it no more. The feet vowed that they would carry it no longer; and the teeth averred that they would not chew a morsel of meat, though it were placed between them. Thus determined, they for some time showed their spirit, and kept their resolution. However, they soon became sensible, that, instead of mortifying the belly by these means, they only ruined themselves. They languished for a while, and perceived, when too late, that it was owing to the belly that they had strength to work, or courage to mutiny."

This fable had an instantaneous effect upon the people, who unanimously cried out that Agrippa should lead them back to Rome; but Lucius Junius, a soldier who had taken a leading part in the conference, and, indeed, in the whole controversy, suggested that though they were grateful for the kind offers of the senate, they had no safeguard against their future resentment, and that it was necessary to have certain officers created annually from among themselves, who should have power to plead the cause of the community, and to redress the injured.

On this suggestion, for the security of their privileges in future, the senate agreed to allow them to choose magistrates of their own order, who should possess the power of opposing, with effect, every measure which they deemed prejudicial to their interests. These were the *Tribunes of the People*, who were chosen annually, and who were at first five, and

afterwards ten, in number. Without guards or tribunal, and without any seat in the senate-house, they examined every decree, which they could annul if it seemed right to them, by affixing to it the word *Veto*, I forbid it. Their persons were declared sacred, but their authority did not extend beyond the limits of a mile from Rome. One of their number could put a negative on the measure of the rest. This new office being thus instituted, the senate made an edict confirming the abolition of debts: and all things being adjusted on both sides, the people sacrificed to the gods on the Sacred Mountain, and returned to Rome in a triumphant manner.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Retirement of the Soldiers to the Sacred Mountain B.C. 494	First appointment of Tri- bunes of the People ... B.C. 494
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## 3. THE STORY OF CORIOLANUS.

Hitherto we have seen the people struggling against the exorbitant power of the senate; but we shall now behold the senate contending against the increasing power of the people. The first advantage of the tribunes was a permission to choose from among the people two annual officers, who were called *Ædiles*, from a part of their business consisting in taking care of the public buildings, aqueducts, and sewers. They were also to determine some causes, which had hitherto been subject to the cognizance of the consuls; to notice those who held more land than the laws allowed them; to curb all immoralities, and abolish nuisances; to provide corn and oil in times of famine, and prevent any monopolies.

Caius Marcius Coriolanus, a patrician who had recently gained his name by the capture of the Volscian city of Corioli, proud of his rank and jealous of the privileges of his order, beheld with indignation the encroachments of the tribunes. Rome being threatened with a famine, an assembly was convened, in which the consuls and the tribunes by turns harangued the people; and a law was passed, that no one should dare to interrupt the tribunes while they spoke to the people. Soon after, Coriolanus proposed that the state of affairs which had existed previous to the secession of the plebeians to the Sacred Mountain, should be restored, and that this should

493  
B.C.

people, on a charge of  
B.C. tyranny, and being unal

brought against him by the tri  
appropriated to his own use some  
war with the Volscians instead  
public treasury, he was condemned

After taking a lasting leave of  
his mother Veturia, Coriolanus left  
senate, to the very gates, to seek ref  
Rome. Resolving to punish his  
involved his country in ruin, he a  
a man of great power among the  
enemy to the Romans. Tullus ins  
The treaty between the Volscians  
after dissolved, and Tullus and C  
generals of the former. Accord  
Roman territories, ravaging and  
which belonged to the plebeians,  
senators to remain untouched. (o  
one after another, and finding  
field, and at the head of a num  
pitched his camp almost under th

The people, seeing the enemy  
peace with tears and supplication  
if possible, not to betray the  
Coriolanus approached nearer ev  
the city with a resolution of bes



hoped for peace, they must restore all the towns which originally belonged to that people, and make them free of that city, as were the Latins. He allowed the Romans thirty days to consider his proposal, and at the expiration of the time, which he employed in ravaging the lands of the Latins, he returned, and again encamped before the walls of Rome.

By another embassy, he was conjured not to exact from his native city aught but what it became Romans to grant. Coriolanus, however, was inflexible, and allowed them only three days more, in which to finish their deliberations. This message filled the whole city with consternation ; and in this exigence another deputation, composed of the pontiffs, the priests, and the augurs, was sent to the enemy's camp. Coriolanus received them with due respect, but dismissed them without in the least relaxing in his demands. At length, it was suggested, that what could not be effected by the intercession of the senate, or the adjuration of the priests, might be brought about by the tears of his wife, or the importunities of his mother. Accordingly, Veturia, the mother of Coriolanus, accompanied by many of the principal matrons of Rome, with Volumnia his wife, and his two children, repaired to the Volscian camp. Coriolanus resolved to give them a denial ; but the rough soldier could not refrain from yielding to the feelings of nature, and sharing in the general distress. His mother, seeing him moved, seconded her words by the most persuasive eloquence of tears ; his wife and children hung round him, and entreated protection and pity ; and the train of matrons prostrate on the ground, and in all the agony of woe, deplored their own and their country's distress.

At length, Coriolanus, struggling with a thousand various emotions, yielded to the importunity of Veturia, who had fallen at his feet, and exclaimed, "O my mother, thou hast saved Rome, but destroyed thy son!" The words were too prophetic. The lenity of Coriolanus to his country was not to be forgiven ; and, in an insurrection of the people, he was slain by some assassins, whom Tullus had hired for that purpose. He was afterwards honourably buried ; and the Roman matrons wore mourning for him a year. A temple, dedicated to Female Fortune, was erected in the place where the women had delivered their country. The Volscians,

488

B.C.

486

B.C.

and their allies the Hernicans, soon after suffered a signal defeat, in which Tullus, their general, was slain.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Ædiles.....	B.C. 493	Banishment of Coriolanus	
Capture of Corioli by Caius		for alleged peculation...	B.C. 489
Marcus, afterwards called		Rome besieged by the Vol-	
ed Coriolanus .....	„ 493	scians under Coriolanus „	488

#### 4. THE AGRARIAN LAW—THE MASSACRE OF THE FABII.

Spurius Cassius, a man who had thrice been consul, and who had done good service to his country by concluding a league with the Latins in his second consulship in 493 B.C., and another with the Hernicans after defeating them in his third consulate in 486 B.C., proposed to distribute among the poor some public lands which had been long in the possession of the patricians, but which in reality were the property of the state and the people of Rome. Thus was originated

485 the famous Agrarian Law, which afterwards proved  
B.C. the source of constant discord between the poor  
and rich. By order of the senate, Cassius was  
arraigned on a charge of designing to subvert the state,  
and raise himself to sovereign power. Cassius surrendered  
to take his trial, and the senate, incensed against him for  
his attempt to restore to the lower orders, at their expense,  
the lands they had so long unequally withheld from them,  
was condemned to death, and beheaded.

Soon after the death of Cassius, the people became again  
urgent for the execution of the Agrarian Law ; but the war  
that followed for seven years with the Aquians and Veientes  
afforded the patricians a sufficient excuse for postponing and  
altogether neglecting the discussion of the question. Re-  
fusal on the part of the lower orders to take up arms in  
defence of their country was now common, and in 481 B.C.,  
the soldiers even suffered themselves to be defeated rather  
than enable the consul Cæso Fabius to obtain a victory over  
the foe. At last, the powerful family of the Fabii saw the

480 necessity of yielding to the demands of the people,  
B.C. and the haughty Cæso Fabius himself proposed  
that the Agrarian Law should be put in force.  
The senate and patricians looked with scorn on the men  
who thus espoused the popular cause, and the whole family,  
numbering about 300, thereupon withdrew from Rome, and

settled on the banks of the Cremera, where they were surprised and put to the sword by the Veientes, one child who had been left at Rome being the only one left to perpetuate the family. Menenius, the consul who had suffered the family of the Fabii to be cut off, was fined about five pounds of our money, a sum which, though trifling in modern estimation, he was unable to pay. Refusing to accept the assistance of his friends, he shut himself up in his own house, and starved himself to death. The Veientes, renewing their attacks in this year, occupied the Janiculum, or Janiculan hill on the west of the Tiber, and two years after, the Romans were glad to obtain a respite from war by making a truce with Veii for forty years.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Proposal of first Agrarian Law by Spurius Cassius B.C. 486	Massacre of the Fabii on the Cremera by Veientes B.C. 477
Spurius Cassius beheaded by order of the Senate... „ 485	The Janiculum taken by the Veientes „ 476
Departure of the family of the Fabii from Rome ... „ 479	Truce with the Veientes for forty years..... „ 474

## 5. RENEWED AGITATION OF THE AGRARIAN LAW—CINCINNATUS.

Free, for a short time at least, from war's alarms, the people were at liberty to renew the agitation for the Agrarian Law, and the ex-consuls, Manlius and Furius, who had concluded the truce with the Veientes, were impeached by Genucius, a tribune of the people, for having delayed, in an unjustifiable manner, to cause the proposed measure to become law. The same perseverance on one side, and obstinacy on the other, again set the city in a ferment, and threatened destruction to one of the parties; but the murder of Genucius, who was found dead in his bed on the night before the trial, and the assassination of other prominent men among the popular party, caused an alarm among the people, which promised to put a stop to the agitation. In order to avail themselves of this favourable impression, the consuls began to make fresh levies, and continued to enrol the citizens with success, till they came to one Publius Volero, who refused to serve, and whom they ordered to be stripped and scourged. This impolitic

severity rekindled the resentment of the populace, and also produced a new cause of contention concerning the power of the consuls and the privileges of the people. The multitude rescued the prisoner, and Volero was soon after created one of the tribunes of the people.

Soon after his election, Volero not only resolved on carrying the Agrarian Law, but upon enacting another known as the Publilian Law, in which the people should  
**472** give their votes by tribes, and not by curiæ, or  
 B.C. centuries. When the people voted by curiæ, or centuries, the patricians were entire masters of the contest; but when by tribes, and every freeman of the Roman territory, from whatever part he came, was admitted to give a vote equal to that of the first senator, all influence was entirely lost. The senate, therefore, strongly opposed it; but the people warmly urging it, that body was obliged to comply. It was then passed into a law, that from that time the tribunes should be elected, and the business discussed, by tribes. From this period, the supreme authority was vested in the hands of the people; and the Roman constitution was converted into a democracy.

Appius Claudius, the consul (son of the former Appius), who had always been foremost among the opposers of the Agrarian Law, was far from being disposed to concur in this new concession to popular importunity. When, therefore, the Volscians appeared in the field, the Romans  
 immediately fled, and tarnished the glory of Appius, **471**  
 their general. For this, Appius retaliated by order-  
 B.C.

ing all the centurions, who had fled or quitted their ranks, to be scourged and beheaded, and caused every tenth  
**470** man to be executed in the sight of his trembling  
 B.C. companions. He was impeached for his severity by the tribunes of the people, and finding them resolved on his condemnation, he prevented their malice by a voluntary death.

For many years the popular cause made but little progress, and no steps appear to have been taken to assert the power of the plebeians in the state, until Caius Terentilius, a tribune of the people, boldly asserted, that the people ought not only to have a share in the lands, but also in the government of the commonwealth, and proposed that a code of written laws should be compiled by ten men, five of

whom should be patricians and five plebeians, to mark out the bounds of their duty. The measure was violently opposed by the patricians, who, on one occasion, headed by Cæso, the son of Quintius Cincinnatus, drove the people from the forum. Cæso was, therefore, impeached by the tribune, Aulus Virginus, but being admitted to bail, he fled into Etruria, and his father was obliged to sell his estate, and retire to a small cottage beyond the Tiber.

461

B.C.

In this state of commotion and universal disorder, Appius Herdonius, a Sabine general, at the head of a band of slaves and exiles, obtained possession of the Capitol, the citadel of Rome. The tribunes dissuaded the people from arming till the patricians should engage by oath to create ten men with a power of making laws, and suffer the people to share in all the benefits that should accrue. Valerius, the consul, then marched against the Capitol, which he retook by storm, but fell in the assault. The tribunes insisting on the performance of the promise relative to the Agrarian Law, the senate appointed Quintius Cincinnatus, the father of Cæso, to the vacant consulate, till the termination of the year, when he again retired to his farm. Although a man of simple life and manners, he was opposed to the views of the commons, and is said to have suggested taking the army beyond the jurisdiction of the tribunes, and there enforcing the abandonment of the popular measures. It appears that at this period Rome was only saved from anarchy, and possibly destruction, from the imperative necessity that lay on all parties to combine against the Æquians and Volscians, who had again appeared in the field.

The war was carried on with varied success on either side. The Romans recovered Tusculum from the Æquians; but Antium, already a flourishing seaport and Roman colony, was occupied by the Volscians. At last, the allies succeeded in enclosing the consul, Lucius Minucius, in a defile of Mount Algidus, and threatened his entire army with destruction. In this extremity, the senate appointed Cincinnatus dictator.

462

B.C.

458

B.C.

This dignity, which was unexpected and undesired, had no effect on the simplicity or the integrity of his manners. Though possessed of absolute power, and called upon to nominate his master of the horse, he chose a poor man

named Lucius Tarquinius, who, like himself, despised riches when they led to dishonour. Tarquinius, though born of a patrician family, and of consummate bravery, had never been able to purchase a horse, and had, therefore, hitherto fought only as a foot soldier, being willing to serve his country even in the humblest situation.

The dictator, having entered the city, immediately ordered all who were able to bear arms, to repair, before sunset, to the Campus Martius, the place where the levies were made, with necessary accoutrements, and provisions for five days. He then put himself at the head of the troops, and, marching all night with great expedition, arrived before day within sight of the enemy. Upon his approach, he ordered the soldiers to raise a loud shout, that the consul's army might be apprised of the relief that was at hand. The Æquians were astonished when they saw themselves between two enemies, and still more so when they perceived Cincinnatus making strong entrenchments beyond them, and inclosing them as they had inclosed the consul. A furious engagement ensued; and the Æquians being attacked on both sides, and unable to resist or fly, begged a cessation of arms, and offered the dictator his own terms. He granted them their lives, but obliged them, in token of servitude, to pass under the yoke; which was two spears set upright, and another across, in the form of a gallows, beneath which the vanquished were to march. Thus having rescued a Roman army, and defeated a powerful enemy, he resigned the dictatorship, after having remained in office only sixteen days. The senate would have enriched him, but he chose to retire once more to his farm and his cottage.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Impeachment of Manlius and Furius by the Tri- bune Genucius.....	B.C. 473	Proposal of Terentilian Law .....	B.C. 463
Enactment of Publilian Law of Publius Volero ..	472	Antium retaken by Vol- scians .....	" 459
Defeat of Appius Claudius by the Volscians .....	" 470	Quintius Cincinnatus ap- pointed Dictator by the Senate .....	" 463
Antium taken by the Romans.....	" 468	Defeat of the Æquians by Cincinnatus .....	" 458

#### 6. SICINIUS DENTATUS.

On the Æquians again taking the field, the people demanded

that the number of the tribunes should be increased from five to ten. This some of the senate wished to oppose ; but gave way on being assured by others of their body that it would be the most infallible means of weakening that power which had so long controlled them. Soon after the tribune Icilius proposed and carried the Icilian Law, that Mount Aventine, which was as yet untenanted, should be given to the people to build on. The Agrarian Law was also again agitated, and a fresh impetus was given to the desire of the people to carry it by Sicinius Dentatus, a brave and valiant plebeian.

457

B.C.

456

B.C.

This old soldier came forward to enumerate his hardships, and scrupled not to extol the various achievements of his youth. He had served his country in the wars forty years, thirty of which he had been an officer ; first a centurion, then a tribune. He had fought one hundred and twenty battles, in which, by the force of his single arm, he had saved a multitude of lives. He had gained fourteen civic, three mural, and eight golden crowns, besides eighty-three chains, sixty bracelets, eighteen gilt spears, and twenty-three horse-trappings, of which nine were for killing the enemy in single combat. Moreover, he had received forty-five wounds, all in front, and particularly twelve on the day the Capitol was recovered from the enemy. Though such were his pretensions, he had never received any share of those lands which had been taken from the enemy. On the contrary, he continued to drag on a life of poverty and contempt, while others were possessed of those very territories which his valour had won, without any merit to deserve them, and without having contributed to the conquest in the slightest degree. This hard and lamentable case excited the indignation of the multitude, who unanimously demanded that the law might be passed, and that such merit should not go unrewarded. When, therefore, some of the senators rose up to speak against it, their voices were drowned by the cries of the populace ; upon which, the young patricians, running furiously into the throng, broke the balloting urns, dispersed the multitude that offered to oppose them, and, for the present, again contrived to put off the Agrarian Law, whose establishment had already been so oft agitated.

The approach of the Æquians within sixteen miles of the

city, in some measure restored peace to the republic. In this war, Sicinius Dentatus, the veteran who had harangued the people, gained greater honours than the consul who obtained the victory. Being ordered on a forlorn hope, to attack the enemy in a quarter where he knew they were inaccessible, he remonstrated against the danger and desperation of such an attempt; but being reproached by the consul with cowardice, he led on his body of eight hundred veterans to the place, and determined to give, by his death, a pattern of obedience, as he had in his life an example of resolution. However, fortunately perceiving a passage into the enemy's camp, which had not been indicated to him by the consul, he attacked the Æquians on one side, while the main body advanced against them on the other, so that the Romans obtained a complete victory. Dentatus, being conscious that he was sent on this dangerous service only to procure him death or infamy, had interest enough, upon his return, not only to prevent the consul from obtaining a triumph, and to get himself created a tribune, but also to procure a law for punishing such magistrates as should in future violate their authority, and for having both consuls fined for their behaviour to him in particular. Thus, fortune, and the persevering zeal of the tribunes, conspired to diminish the patrician interest every year.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Occupation of Mount Aventine by Plebeians (Icilian Law) .....	B.C. 456	Defeat of Æquians—Sici- nius Dentatus elected Tribune .....	B.C. 455
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#### 7. THE DECEMVIRS.

The citizens of every rank now began to complain of the arbitrary decisions of the magistrates, and wished for a written body of laws, which might both prevent and punish wrongs. This measure was first started by Terentilius, and was therefore known, from the name of its originator, as the Terentilian Law. It was, therefore, agreed, that  
 454 three ambassadors should be sent to the Greek  
 B.C. cities in Italy, and to Athens, to bring from thence  
 such laws as by experience had been found most  
 equitable and useful.

The ambassadors were no sooner returned, than the tribunes required, that a body of men should be chosen, who



might digest the collected laws into proper form, and give weight to their execution. After long debates whether this election should not be partly made from the people as well as the patricians, it was at length agreed, that ten of the principal senators should be elected. The persons chosen were Appius Claudius and Titus Genucius, who had been elected consuls for the ensuing year; Postumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambassadors; Sextus and Romulus, former consuls, with Julius, Veturius and Horatius, senators of the highest rank. As soon as the term for which the consuls then in power had been elected had expired, Appius Claudius and Titus Genucius, the consuls designate, went through the form of resigning office, and the Decemvirs assumed the reins of government. 452  
B.C.

It was decreed, that the power of the decemviri should continue for a year, and be equal to that of kings and consuls: that all other magistrates should lay down their offices, till the laws directed proper substitutes; and that the new legislators should, in the meantime, exercise their authority with all the ensigns of the former, but now discontinued power. The decemviri agreed to exercise supreme jurisdiction by turns; that each should dispense justice for a day; that he alone, who was in the actual exercise of power, should be attended with the ensigns of it. After labouring for a year, they formed a body of laws, which were comprised in ten tables, and after being engraven on plates of brass, were hung up in the most conspicuous part of the forum.

Under pretence that some laws were still wanting to complete their design, they entreated the senate for a continuance of their appointment; to which that body consented. Appius procured himself to be re-nominated, and composed the college of the decemviri of persons devoted to him. They then made solemn vows never to dissent from each other, nor give up their authority. Instead only of one of them being attended by his rods and axes, each appeared with those ensigns of terror and authority. Instead of magistrates, mild, just, and affable, they became monsters of rapine, licentiousness, and cruelty. The forms of justice were converted into an engine to put many of the citizens to death, and deprive others of their country and estates. But that they might convince 450  
B.C.

the people that they were not unmindful of their delegated trust, they framed two additional tables of laws, which formed, with the ten tables drawn up in the previous year, that celebrated code, known by the name of the "Twelve Tables."

In these last was introduced a law, which prohibited all marriages between the patricians and the plebeians, and by which the framers hoped to widen the breach between the two orders, and thus avail themselves of their mutual animosity. But though the people easily saw through their designs, they bore them with patience, as the time of the expiration of their office was at hand, when it was expected that they would quietly lay down their usurped authority. However, regardless of the approbation either of the senate or the people, they continued themselves, contrary to all precedent, and against all order, another year in the decemvirate. This tyrannical conduct occasioned new discontents,

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B.C.

which produced fresh acts of tyranny to silence them. In this state of slavery, proscription, and mutual distrust, not a single citizen had the courage to strike for his country's freedom; and the tyrants continued to rule without control, being constantly guarded, not with their lictors alone, but by a numerous crowd of dependants, clients, and even patricians, whom their vices had gathered round them.

The Æquians and Volscians, in hopes of profiting by the intestine divisions of the people, took advantage of the gloomy situation of the state, renewed their incursions, and advanced within about ten miles. The decemviri, who had no authority to raise an army themselves, reluctantly convened the senate, whose deliberations had been long suspended, and Appius, in a premeditated speech, propounded the business for which they were assembled. Valerius, the son of Publicola, violently inveighed against the tyranny of the decemvirate, and their effrontery in expecting that the senate, whose power they had placed in abeyance, should now take measures to support them. He was seconded by Marcus Horatius, who, with still greater freedom, exposed their horrid invasion of the rights of their country, their outrages, their rapines, and their cruelties. Appius, enraged against his opposers, threatened to cause Horatius to be hurled from the Tarpeian rock. This indignity roused the

whole body of senators, who exclaimed against the decemvir's infringement of the liberty of free debate, as an unwarrantable breach of their privileges, and an intolerable act of power ; but on the apology of Appius, they passed a decree which conferred on him and his colleagues a power of levying and commanding the forces destined to expel the *Æquians*.

The Roman soldiers had lately adopted an ingenious and effectual method of punishing the generals whom they disliked, by suffering themselves to be vanquished in the field. This practice they used on this occasion, and abandoned their camp on the approach of the enemy. The tidings of this defeat were received at Rome with greater joy than ever was the news of a victory. The generals were blamed for the treachery of their men : some demanded that they should be deposed ; and others cried out for a dictator to lead the troops to conquest.

Sicinius Dentatus, the tribune, having spoken his sentiments with his usual candour and frankness, was marked out by Appius for vengeance. Being appointed legate, he was put at the head of the supplies sent from Rome to reinforce the army. He was then dispatched at the head of a hundred men to examine a more commodious place for encampment ; but the soldiers who accompanied him were assassins, whom the decemvirs had engaged to murder him. They attacked him in a retired spot in the defiles of the mountains. The brave veteran, placing his back against a rock, killed no less than fifteen of the assailants, and wounded thirty with his own hand ; but the villains at length succeeded in depriving the brave old man of life, by ascending the rock, and pouring down stones upon him from above.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Embassy sent to Greece ...	B.C. 454	Completion of the Twelve
Election of the Decemvirs		Tables by the Decemvirs B.C. 450
in place of Consuls .....	„ 452	Murder of Sicinius Den-
Decemvirs assume power .	„ 451	tatus by order of Appius „ 449

#### 8. THE STORY OF VIRGINIA.

Appius, sitting one day on his tribunal to dispense justice, was smitten with the charms of a very young maiden of exquisite beauty, passing to one of the public schools, and

attended by her nurse. Her name was Virginia; she was the daughter of Virginius, a centurion, then with the army, and was betrothed to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people. After trying in vain to corrupt the fidelity of her nurse, Appius prevailed upon a man called Claudius, who had long been the minister of his pleasures, to assert that the beautiful maid was the daughter of one of his female slaves, and to refer the cause to his own tribunal for decision.

Claudius conducted himself according to his instructions, and, entering into the school where Virginia was placed among her female companions, he seized upon her as his property, and was going to drag her away by force, had he not been prevented by the people, who were drawn together by her cries. At length, however, he led the weeping virgin to the tribunal of Appius, where he asserted that she was born in his house, of a female slave, and sold by her to the wife of Virginius. He concluded by observing that he had several credible witnesses to prove the truth of what he said, but that, till they could be summoned, it was only reasonable that the slave should be delivered into his custody as her proper master.

Appius affected to be struck with the justice of his claims, and adjudged her to the claimant, as his slave, to be kept by him till Virginius should be able to prove his paternity. The multitude received this sentence with loud murmurs; the women surrounded the innocent Virginia, as if willing to protect her from the fury of the judge; and Icilius, her lover, boldly opposed the decree, and obliged Claudius to take refuge under the tribunal of the decemvir, at whose instigation he was acting.

Appius, therefore, found it necessary to suspend his judgment till the arrival of Virginius from the army. Claudius and Virginius having urged the arguments which they had to advance, Appius decreed in favour of the former, and adjudged Virginia to be the property of Claudius, the plaintiff. Virginius, therefore, mildly entreated permission to take a last farewell of one whom he had long considered as his child.

With this request the decemvir complied, on condition that the interview should take place in his presence. With the most poignant anguish, Virginius took his almost expiring daughter in his arms, for awhile supported her head

upon his breast, and wiped away the tears that rolled down her lovely face. But his fatal resolution was taken; and the tenderness of a father's love was lost in the sense of honour. Happening to be near the shops that surrounded the forum, he snatched up a knife which lay on the shambles, and, addressing his daughter, said, "My dearest lost child, this alone can preserve your honour and your freedom." He then stabbed her to the heart, and, holding up the bloody knife, cried, "Appius, by the blood of this innocent I devote thy head to the infernal gods." So saying he ran through the city, calling on the people to strike for freedom, and then proceeded immediately to the camp, to spread a like flame through the army.

Virginus having rejoined the troops, implored the soldiers, by that blood which was dearer to him than his own, to redeem their sinking country. The army, already predisposed, immediately with shouts signified their assent, and, leaving their generals behind, once more took their station upon the Sacred Mountain. They then chose other commanders—thus originating the military tribunes, who, in the sequel, held a relative rank with the generals in the army—and then marched to Mount Aventine. The senate, foreseeing the dangers and miseries that threatened the state, in case the incensed army was opposed, offered to restore the former mode of government, by consuls and tribunes; and the people joyfully assenting to this proposal, the decemvirate was abolished. The people being thus delivered from a tyrannical yoke, which they had imposed on themselves, Valerius and Horatius were elected consuls, and Virginus and Icilius received into the number of the tribunes. Appius, and Oppius, one of his colleagues, died in prison by their own hands. The other eight went into voluntary exile; and Claudius was banished.

448

B.C.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Death of Virginia, and Second Secession of the Soldiers }  
to the Sacred Mount ..... } B.C. 449

## 9. MILITARY TRIBUNES—CENSORS.

Thus the vengeance of the tribunes pursued the late decemvirs to the utmost; and they were preparing to exceed in acts of oppression those whom they had deposed for cruelty.

The senate began to tremble at seeing so many of their numbers menaced with destruction ; but their fears were quieted by Duillius, one of the tribunes, who was more moderate than the rest of his colleagues, and who openly professed that no more blood should be shed on this occasion, that sufficient vengeance had been taken for the death of Virginia, and that he interdicted all future prosecutions on that account.

The first acts of the two new consuls, who seemed entirely to have abandoned the interests of the patricians, and to study only the gratification of the people, were the introduction of the Valerian and Horatian Laws. Of these the  
448 former provided that each of the plebeians should,  
B.C. in his individual capacity, have as much influence in all elections and deliberations whatever, as any one of the patricians, while the latter revived the right of appeal to the *Comitia Centuriata*. The Valerian law, which was extremely injurious to the power of the senate, gave the finishing blow to all class distinction. The two orders of the state continued for some years mutually to oppose each other—the patricians defending the small shadow of distinction which was left them, and the people daily insisting on fresh concessions. In short, the creation and abolition of the *decemviri* gave a shock to the republic, which, for more than fifty years, caused the government to vibrate, and prevented it from becoming stationary.

These intestine tumults produced weakness within the state, and confidence in the enemy abroad. The war with the *Æquians* and *Volscians* still continued ; and the allies at last advanced so far, as to make their incursions to the very walls of Rome. The justice, as well as the courage of the Romans, seemed also sensibly diminished. The inhabitants of *Ardea* and *Aricia*, having a contest between themselves respecting some lands, which had been long claimed by both, agreed to refer the matter to the senate and people of Rome. The senate, indeed, refused to determine the dispute ; but the people readily undertook the decision, and one *Scaptius*, an old man, declaring that those very lands of right belonged to Rome, they immediately voted themselves to be the legal possessors, and sent home the former litigants, thoroughly convinced of their own folly, and of the Roman injustice.

The tribunes grew more and more turbulent ; and having

now obtained a principal share in the administration of some departments of government, Canuleius, one of their body, proposed two laws, in violation of the regulations of the Twelve Tables—one to permit plebeians to intermarry with patricians; the other, to allow them to be admitted also to the consulship. The senate was obliged to concede the first, but absolutely refused to pass the law relative to the consulship. At length it was agreed, that six governors should be annually chosen, with consular authority, three from the senate, and three from the people. The new magistrates were denominated Military Tribunes. This institution, however, was in a short time laid aside; and the consuls once more came into office.

To assist the consuls, two new magistrates, called Censors, were elected, who were to hold office for five years. Their business consisted in estimating the number and estates of the people, and distributing them into their proper classes; in inspecting the lives and manners of their fellow-citizens; in cashiering senators for misconduct; in dismounting knights, and degrading plebeians, in case of misdemeanour. The first two censors were patricians, and from this order they continued to be elected for nearly one hundred years.

The people being greatly distressed by a famine, Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, who had sold corn to the people at a lower rate than that supplied by the state, was accused of seeking to usurp the sovereignty of his country. As a rising of the people was brought on by the impeachment of Spurius, Cincinnatus, who was now eighty years old, but who still possessed all the intrepid courage of youth, was once more chosen dictator to rescue his country from impending danger. He ordered the favourite of the people to appear before his tribunal, but in consequence of the refusal of Spurius to do so, Servilius Ahala, the master of the horse, cut him down on the spot, and thus put an end to the expected insurrection.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Enactment of Valerian and Horatian Laws .....	B.C. 448	Institution of office of Censor .....	B.C. 443
First appointment of Mili- tary Tribunes .....	„ 444	Cincinnatus again Dicta- tor .....	„ 440
			D 2

## 10. ESTABLISHMENT OF A PAID ARMY—CAMILLUS.

For the next fifteen years, the struggle for supremacy between Rome and the surrounding nations was continued with little intermission. The people of Fidenæ, who had been conquered by the Romans, broke into open revolt in 438 and 426 B.C., in which year they were finally subdued ; while the contest with the Veientes was brought to a temporary close in 426 B.C., by a truce for twenty years. During this period, Lavici and Bola were taken and colonized by the Romans, who suffered defeat themselves in a fresh war with the Volscians.

As time went on, factions still became stronger, and the government weaker ; while the tribunes of the people continued to augment the breach between the orders of the commonwealth. At length, the senate hit upon an expedient, which served greatly to extend their own power, and at the same time was highly pleasing to the people. The citizens, who went to the field, had hitherto fought the battles of their country without pay ; in fact they were husbandmen, and not soldiers, being obliged to furnish not only their own arms, but their own provisions, during the campaign. Hence they incurred debts, and hence proceeded that various train of extortions, usuries, and petty cruelties, which the creditors made use of to oppress their debtors. To remedy, or rather mitigate those evils, the senate unanimously resolved to pay the soldiery out of the treasury ; and for this purpose they imposed a new tax, from which none of the citizens were to be exempted. This regulation gave a new turn to the Roman mode of warfare ; incursions now became regularly protracted campaigns. Sure of their reward, the people gladly offered to enlist, and follow the consuls wherever they would lead them.

The senate, thus reconciled to the people, and become masters  
 406 of an army that they could keep in the field as long  
 B.C. as they thought proper, resolved to take signal  
 vengeance on the Veientes, and besiege their  
 capital city. The Veientes had long been rivals of the  
 Romans, and having taken every opportunity of ravaging the  
 Roman territories and maltreating their ambassadors, it was  
 determined that Veii should fall. However, the siege lasted  
 ten years. Unceasing dissension among the Romans, and so  
 much obstinacy on the part of Veii, induced the senate to  
 create Furius Camillus dictator, to whom was entrusted the



sole power of conducting the long-protracted war. He overthrew the Falisci and Capenates, who came to the assistance of the Veientes, and finding himself master of the field, directed all his force to the vigorous prosecution of the siege of Veii. He secretly wrought a mine, which opened into the midst of the citadel, and filled the city with his legions, to the amazement and confusion of the besieged, who, the moment before, had reposed in perfect security. **396**  
Camillus, having subdued the rival of his native **B.C.**  
city, triumphed after the manner of the kings of Rome, and had his chariot drawn by four milk-white steeds.

Afterwards, Camillus again routed the Falisci, and besieged their capital city Falerii. A schoolmaster entrusted with the care of the children belonging to the principal men of the place, led them to the camp, and offered to put them into the hands of Camillus, as the surest means of inducing the citizens to a speedy surrender. Struck with the treachery of a wretch, who thus sought to betray his trust, the Roman general caused him to be stripped and bound, and in that ignominious manner whipped into the town by his own scholars. This generous behaviour induced the magistrates to submit to the senate, and the Falisci were received and treated as allies of Rome. But though the virtues of Camillus had excited veneration abroad, he was impeached at home by the tribunes for having appropriated the great bronze gates of the city of Veii; and being ordered to appear before the people, he resolved not to submit to the ignominy of a trial, and retired to Ardea, a town at a little distance from Rome. **391**  
**B.C.**

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Twenty Years' Truce with	Capture of Veii by Camil-
Veii ..... B.C. 425	lus..... B.C. 396
Renewal of War with Veii „ 405	Camillus goes into exile... „ 391

## 11. THE GAULS IN ITALY.

The Gauls, a barbarous nation, had two centuries before passed the Alps, and settled in the northern provinces of Italy. They had been allured from their native country by the delicious flavour of the wines, and the softness of the climate. They invited others from their original habitations, and a body of these, under the conduct of Brennus, their king, at this time besieged Clusium, a city of Etruria. The

Clusians, frightened at their numbers, and still more at their savage appearance, entreated the assistance of the Romans, who sent ambassadors to Brennus. The ambassadors, however, heading the citizens in a sally against the besiegers, Brennus was so enraged, that he immediately broke up the siege of Clusium, and marched his conquering army to attack Rome herself.

The Romans and Gauls met near the river Allia, eleven  
**390** miles from the city. The two armies were alike  
B.C. confident of victory, and disdaining to survive a  
defeat. However, the centre of the Roman army,  
unable to withstand the impetuosity of the enemy's charge,  
soon gave way, and the wings being divided from each  
other, a rout ensued, in which the Romans seemed to  
have lost the power, not only of resistance, but of flight.  
Confusion and terror reigned throughout their broken ranks,  
and few of them returned to Rome with the dreadful intelligence of this overthrow. The remaining inhabitants able to  
bear arms, threw themselves into the Capitol; and the rest  
resolved to hide themselves in some of the neighbouring  
towns. The ancient senators and priests, inspired with a  
religious enthusiasm on this occasion, determined to devote  
their lives to atone for the crimes of the people, and habited  
in their robes of ceremony, placed themselves in the forum,  
on their ivory chairs.

On the third day after the victory, Brennus appeared before the city, and was surprised to find the gates wide open, and the walls defenceless. After proper precautions, he entered Rome, and beheld the ancient senators, who observed a profound silence, unmoved and undaunted. The Gauls first considered them as gods, and worshipped them; but one venturing to stroke the beard of Papirius, the noble Roman struck him to the ground with his ivory sceptre. This served as a signal for a general slaughter, and all of them fell without mercy or distinction. In a short time, every house was reduced to a heap of ashes, and Rome became nearly a waste.

The siege of the Capitol had continued for above six months, the provisions of its defenders were almost exhausted, and they had resolved on death, when they were revived from their despondence by the appearance of a young man, Pontius Cominius by name, who had swam across the Tiber by night, passed through the enemy's guards, and with extreme fatigue

climbed up the Capitoline rock. He brought tidings to the besieged, that Camillus, their exiled dictator, was levying an army for their relief; that the citizens of Ardea and Veii had armed in his favour, and made him their general; and that he only waited his country's confirmation of their choice, to enter the field and give the barbarians battle.

The Romans, astonished to find that the man whom they had driven with contumely from the city, was now, in its desperate state, ready to become its defender, instantly sanctioned his appointment as dictator, and prepared to sustain the siege with recruited vigour. The messenger, after receiving his answer and proper instructions, had the good fortune to return to Camillus, though not without encountering a variety of perils.

Brennus tried every art to reduce the citadel, and hoped speedily to starve them into a capitulation; but, in order to convince him of the futility of his expectations, though in actual want, they caused several loaves to be thrown into his camp. The Gauls then tried to scale the rocks and surprise the Capitol; but they were detected just in time by one of the garrison, Marcus Manlius by name, who was roused by the cackling of some sacred geese kept in the temple of Juno, and the foremost of the Gauls were thrown headlong from the walls. At length it was agreed that the invaders should immediately quit the city and territories of Rome, on being paid a thousand pounds weight of gold. The Gauls, however, attempted fraudulently to kick the beam on weighing the gold; of which the Romans complaining, Brennus insultingly cast his sword and belt into the scale, saying, that the only thing left to the vanquished was to suffer. At this very juncture, Camillus arrived at the head of a large army destined to relieve the citadel, and being informed of the dispute, ordered the gold to be carried back to the Capitol, adding that the manner of the Romans was, to ransom their country with iron, and not with gold. A battle ensued, in which Brennus and his followers were so completely defeated, that the Gauls soon wholly withdrew for a time from Italy.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of the Gauls—		Appointment of Camillus
Battle of Allia, June 18	B.C. 390	as Dictator, and retire-
Rome burnt by the Gauls—		ment of the Gauls from
June 21 .....	„ 390	Rome and Italy ..... B.C. 389

## CHAPTER IV.

FROM THE REBUILDING OF ROME TO THE END OF THE WARS  
WITH THE SAMNITES.

389 B.C. to 290 B.C.

## 1. THE REBUILDING OF THE CITY—THE FATE OF MANLIUS.

ROME continued for some time a heap of ruins; and no part of its former magnificence remained except the Capitol.

389

B.C.

The greatest number of its former inhabitants had sought refuge in Veii; and the tribunes of the people once more urged for the removal of the poor remains of Rome to Veii, where they might have houses to shelter, and walls to defend them. But Camillus observed, that it was unworthy of them, both as Romans and as men, to desert the venerable seats of their ancestors, where they had been encouraged by repeated marks of divine approbation, to remove to and inhabit a city which they themselves had conquered. By these and similar arguments, he prevailed on the people to relinquish the design of abandoning Rome, and to set about rebuilding its ruined edifices. Like a phoenix, it quickly sprang from its ashes, though with diminished beauty and regularity.

The bravery of Manlius in defending the Capitol when the Gauls attempted to scale the walls, was rewarded by the people, who built him a house near the place where his valour had been so conspicuous, and gave him the name of Capitulinus. He showed his gratitude subsequently to the people by selling his lands to pay the debts of some plebeians who were on the point of being cast into prison. For this he was charged by the patricians with aspiring to the sovereignty of Rome, and thrown into prison by Aulus Cornelius Cossus, who had been appointed dictator to conduct a new war against the Volscians and Etruscans. When Cossus went out of office, Manlius was released by order of the senate, and was carried by the populace in triumph through the city. He now began to talk of a division of the lands among the people, to insinuate that there should be no distinctions in the state, and always to appear at the head of a large body of the debtors whom he had released. He was now

summoned by the tribunes before the people in the Campus Martius to answer the charge of sedition, and of aspiring to the sovereignty, but Manlius only turned his eyes upon the Capitol, and, pointing thither, put all who were present in mind of his achievement upon that spot. The multitude, it was plain, would have pronounced in favour of his acquittal, and the assembly was hastily dissolved. Manlius, however, was brought to trial a second time before the patricians, and being condemned to death, was thrown head-**384**  
long from the Tarpeian rock. His house was razed **B.C.**  
to the ground; and his relatives and descendants were forbidden to assume the name of Manlius.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Rebuilding of Rome ..... B.C. 389 | Death of Manlius ..... B.C. 384

## 2. THE LEGENDS OF THE CHAIN AND THE CROW.

For a few years Rome had comparative rest as far as the attacks of foreign foes were concerned. The Volscians invaded the Roman territory (381 B.C.), and through the imprudence of Lucius Furius, the youthful colleague of Camillus, who was once more in power as consul, in attacking the foe contrary to his advice, had almost won a decisive victory over the Romans, when the aged warrior, rising from his bed in spite of illness and infirmity, rallied the troops, already in full flight, and turned the tide of battle. The enemy were repulsed; and the combat being renewed the next day, they were totally defeated.

This was the only war of consequence that occurred until the Gauls invaded Italy in considerable force in the year 367 B.C., when Camillus, who was appointed in this emergency dictator for the fifth time, met the Gauls at Alba, and completely defeated them. In 361 B.C., the Gauls again marched through the northern parts of Italy, and advanced within five miles of Rome. The Romans took the field against them in haste under the dictator, Titus Quinctius Pennus, and the hostile armies remained, each in its own camp, awaiting and watching for a favourable opportunity to attack the other, when the defeat of one of the leaders of the Gauls, a man of gigantic strength and stature, by Titus Manlius, the son of Lucius Manlius Capitolinus, led to the withdrawal of the army of the barbarians. This chieftain

were round his neck a gold chain (*torques*), the emblem, probably, of sovereign power over the tribe to which he belonged, and Manlius, who had taken this as one of the fruits of his victory, was henceforward known by the surname of Torquatus. The Gauls returned in the following year (360 B.C.), but were defeated before Rome by Quintus Servilius Ahala, who was then dictator. In 358 B.C. the Gauls made another attempt to storm Rome, but were checked and driven back by the dictator, Caius Sulpicius Peticus. Undismayed by defeat, and hankering after the produce and plunder of fair and fruitful Italy, they ravaged the coasts of the peninsula yet again in 350 B.C., and a formidable body threatening Rome were defeated in that year by Lucius Furius Camillus, a son of Marcus Furius Camillus, who had gone to his rest 366 B.C., after having served his country five times as dictator. The victory, however, could not have been a decisive one, for they advanced on Rome once more in the year after (349 B.C.). In this campaign, while Marcus Valerius was engaged in single combat with a Gaul in the sight of both armies, a crow (*corvus*) settled on the head of his adversary, and assailed his eyes with beak and claws. The Roman took advantage of the incident to drive his sword up to the hilt into the heart of his bewildered foe, and was ever after styled by his countrymen, Corvus. The Gauls then seem to have abandoned all hope of conquering the Romans, and left them to turn their arms against such tribes of Italy as they had not yet worsted in war, and to consolidate their power in the peninsula.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

War with the Volscians... B.C. 381	The Gauls attack Rome... B.C. 358
Invasion of the Gauls ... „ 367	Invasion of Italy by the
Death of Camillus ..... „ 366	Gauls ..... „ 350
Duel between a Gaul and	Duel between a Gaul and
Titus Manlius, hence	Marcus Valerius, hence
called Torquatus ..... „ 361	called Corvus ..... „ 349

## 3. THE STRUGGLES OF THE PLEBEIANS FOR POWER.

An outline of the wars of the Roman Republic as far as 349 B.C. in succession has just been given. It is now necessary to trace briefly to the same period the principal events that took place within the city in the continuance of the

struggle between the patricians and the plebeians, the former striving to retain, and the latter seeking to acquire predominance in the state.

In the year 376 B.C., Caius Licinius, and his colleague and relative Lucius Sextius, who were then tribunes of the people, introduced the celebrated bills, which are known as the "Licinian Rogations," and which provided for the relief of debtors, an equitable distribution of the public lands, and that the executive power should for the future be shared by the patricians and plebeians, one of the consuls for the future to be selected always from the ranks of the latter order. Five years after, a fourth proviso was added to these, namely, that to the patrician *duumvirs* hitherto chosen to keep the Sibylline books, there should be added eight more, and that the college of ten thus constituted should consist of an equal number of patricians and plebeians. Both sides contended earnestly for several years for and against the passing of these proposals into law, and Rome at several crises in the prolonged contest was without her usual chief magistrates, the tribunes of the people, Sextius and Licinius opposing and placing their *veto* on all appointments made by the senate. At last, after a contest of nine years, the Licinian Rogations became law, the patricians having learnt at last that it was wiser to give way than needlessly prolong a struggle in which success was hopeless, and in 366 B.C., Lucius Sextius was elected consul, being the first plebeian who had filled that exalted office. The consent of the patricians to this measure was given by the advice of the aged Camillus, who vowed to build a temple to Concord if peace were restored.

At the same time a concession was made by the plebeians to the patricians, by the election of one of their body as prætor, an officer who officiated in place of either of the consuls in his absence. The number of prætors, in after ages, was increased to sixteen. There were likewise two *curule sediles* created, who had the care of the public games, and of the corn and provisions taken in war.

Camillus, after resigning the dictatorship, and building a temple to Concord, died, as it has been said, in 366 B.C., of the plague, in the eighty-second year of his age, with the reputation of being the second founder of Rome. He never gave a battle which was not followed by a complete victory ;

besieged a town without taking it; nor led forth an army which he did not bring back laden with spoils, and covered with glory.

This period is distinguished for being the epoch to which is assigned the last of the romantic stories which lend such marvellous colouring to the early history of Rome. In 362 B.C., a gulf having opened in the forum, which the augurs affirmed would never close up till the most precious things in Rome were thrown into it, a patrician, named Marcus Curtius, leaped with his horse and armour boldly into the midst of it, saying that nothing was more truly valuable than patriotism and military virtue. Historians assert, that the gulf immediately closed, and that Curtius was never after seen.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Introduction of the "Licinian Rogations".....	B.C. 376	Appointment of officers styled Prætors and	
Licinian Rogations become law .....	" 367	Curule Ædiles.....	B.C. 366
Election of first Plebeian Consul .....	" 366	Leap of Marcus Curtius into the Gulf in the Forum .....	" 362

#### 4. THE FIRST SAMNITE WAR.

The Romans having now triumphed over the Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernicans, Æquians, Volscians, and other petty nations, within a moderate distance, they turned their arms against the Samnites, a people one hundred miles east from Rome. Before, however, entering on the long and bloody wars with the Samnites, which extended over half a century, it may be as well to observe, as Carthage will be frequently mentioned in future pages, that in 348 B.C., a treaty of alliance which had been entered into some years before between Rome and her future rival on the coast of Africa, was renewed.

The Samnites were a hardy and powerful nation, descended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of southern Italy, which at this day constitutes a considerable part of the kingdom of Naples. They were equally powerful in numbers and discipline with the Romans; and, like them, had confederated states in their train. Two such powerful neighbours, who were both fond of arms and inured to war, could not long want a pretext for a rupture. The Samnites had oppressed the Sidicini, who, being too weak to manage the



war alone, called in the Campanians to their assistance, and they also being overthrown, implored the assistance of the Romans.

Valerius Corvus, who was then consul, was sent to relieve Capua, the capital of the Campanians, which was besieged by the Samnites. At the same time, Cornelius Cossus, his colleague, marched with an army against Samnium, the enemy's capital. The fortune of Rome prevailed ; and the Samnites fled, averring that they were unable to withstand the fierce looks and fiery eyes of the Romans. Capua received a Roman garrison, which revolted against Rome, but, at length, by the prudence and moderation of Corvus, who was created dictator, the soldiers were brought to a sense of their duty.

The Romans, soon after this, concluded with the Samnites a treaty of peace, and it was so managed that, while Teanum was given to the Samnites, Capua was assigned to Rome. No sooner was this done than the Latins, Volscians, and Campanians, entered into an alliance to oppose the growing power of Rome, and soon broke into open revolt. The two consuls, Manlius Torquatus and Decius Mus, were sent to chastise the Latins, who insisted that one of the consuls, and half the senate, should be chosen out of their body, before they would submit to an accommodation with Rome. The two armies met at the foot of Mount Vesuvius, and engaged for some time with doubtful success ; but, at length, the wing commanded by Decius being repulsed, the general resolved to devote himself to his country, and offer his own life as an atonement to save his army—the deities having revealed to him in a dream that the general on one side should fall in battle, and that his fall should be followed by the destruction of the opposing army. The story having got about, the Roman troops considered this as an assurance of success ; and the Latins were not less powerfully influenced by this resolution. The Romans pressed them on every side, and so great was the carnage, that few of the enemy survived the defeat. Two years after, the Latins and Campanians were brought into an entire submission to the Romans.

It may be proper to observe, that in the preceding battle the strict discipline of the Romans, and their amazing patriotism, were displayed in a manner that has excited the wonder, rather than the applause of posterity. The Latins

340

B.C.

338

B.C.

and Romans being a neighbouring people, their habits, arms, and language were the same, and the most exact discipline was necessary to prevent confusion in the engagement. Manlius, the consul, therefore issued orders, that no soldier should leave the ranks upon any provocation, and that he who should offer to violate this injunction, should certainly be put to death. When both armies were drawn out, and ready to engage, Metius, the general of the enemy's cavalry, pushed forward from his lines, and challenged any knight in the Roman army to single combat. For some time there was a general pause, and no one offered to disobey his orders; but, at length, Titus Manlius, the consul's son, ashamed to see the whole body of the Romans intimidated, boldly advanced against Metius. The soldiers on each side suspended the general engagement, that they might be spectators of this fierce encounter. The two champions attacked each other with the greatest spirit and bravery; but, at length, the Roman laid his antagonist dead at his feet. He then despoiled him of his armour, and returned in triumph to the tent of the consul, his father.

The stern Roman ordered his son to be first crowned in the sight of the whole army, for his victory over the Latin warrior, and then beheaded, for having ventured to fight in disobedience to orders. The dead body, adorned with the spoils of the vanquished enemy, was then carried without the camp, and buried with all the pomp of military distress, and all the commiseration which was due to such ill-requested heroism.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Beginning of the First		Titus Manlius beheaded
Samnite War .....	B.C. 343	for disobedience to his
Termination of First Sam-		father's orders .....
nite War .....	„ 340	Final subjugation of La-
Revolt of the Latins .....	„ 340	tium and Campania..... „ 333

#### 5. THE SECOND SAMNITE WAR.

The complete subjugation of Latium and Campania, and the encroachments of Rome on the borders of the Samnites, roused the jealousy of that powerful people; and the inhabitants of Palæopolis and Neapolis (now Naples), cities which had been founded by Greek colonists, having quarrelled with the Roman settlers in the newly-acquired territory

sought the assistance of their powerful neighbours accordingly, after a peace  
 years, renewed the war between them-  
 the Romans, which, though intermitted  
 treaties and suspensions, was to terminate only  
 in of the Samnites.

326

B.C.

a.d., the Romans, sent an army into Samnium, as Papirius Cursor as dictator, who appointed Publius Maximus his master of the horse, or second in command. Papirius, who was compelled to return to Rome, ordered Fabius not to fight in his absence; but the latter obtained a favourable opportunity, engaged the Samnites, and completely defeated them. Papirius sought to put Publius Maximus to death for disobedience, but was prevented in concession to the openly-expressed wish of the senate.

In 322 the Samnites, wearied with reverses, sought peace, but the senate refused to grant them equal and reasonable terms of accommodation, and the war was continued. In the course of the ensuing campaign, Caius Pontius, a Samnite general, decoyed the Romans into the Caudine Forks, near the village of Caudium, in Samnium, in which they were so completely hemmed in that they were forced to surrender to the enemy. "The gods themselves," says Livy, "could not have aided them without a miracle." After having

321

B.C.

a Roman army of all but their underlings, Caius Pontius obliged them to pass under the yoke. They then stipulated that they should wholly quit the country of the Samnites, and that they should religiously observe the conditions of amity formerly established between the two nations.

The treaty was so severely felt in Rome, that an attempt was made to break it. The consuls, thereupon, entered into the treaty, offered themselves up as hostages, as the only persons that could be called to an account. Caius Pontius exclaimed against the perfidy of Rome, and the war was renewed with increased virulence. In 316, Caudium, a Roman colony, was stormed and carried off by the Samnites; but it was re-taken almost immediately. Papirius Cursor, who in a great measure retrieved the disastrous defeat of the Caudine Forks, by recovering the hostages and arms that had been retained by

the Samnites, and capturing 7000 Samnite soldiers, and sending them under the yoke. A truce was then concluded for two years, but at the expiration of this period the war broke out again. At first the efforts of the Samnites were crowned with success, but it was not long before fortune, as of old, favoured the Romans, who had now begun to connect the capital with her colonies and conquered states by broad

and well made roads, one of which, the Appian Way, was now completed across the Pomptine Marshes as far as Capua, and was afterwards extended to Brundisium. In 309 B.C., Papirius gained another decisive victory over the Samnites, and this was virtually the battle which led to a cessation of the wearying strife, although the contest was prolonged until the successive defeats of the Umbrians, Marsians, Pelignians, and Hernicans, who had entered into alliance with the Samnites, and the fall of their chief city, Bovianum, led them to sue for peace, which was concluded in 304.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Beginning of Second Samnite War .....	B.C. 326	Papirius Cursor defeats Samnites .....	B.C. 309
Defeat of Romans at the Caudine Forks .....	„ 322	Fall of Bovianum, the Samnite capital .....	„ 305
Construction of the Appian Way .....	„ 312	Termination of Second Samnite War .....	„ 304

#### 6. THE THIRD SAMNITE WAR.

The Samnites, and the Latin nations who had taken part with them in their long-maintained struggle against Rome, were ill disposed to submit quietly to the condition of dependence to which they had been reduced, and gladly seized an opportunity which happened to offer itself of re-commencing the war. The Romans, who had still been fighting against the Etruscans and Umbrians, had with difficulty established, on the Nar, the colony of Narnia, which stood just at the spot where the river was crossed by the Flaminian Way, a fine military road that the Romans were constructing through Umbria. A body of Gauls, who had been ravaging Northern Italy, had made their way southwards as far as the Central States of the peninsula, and plundered the districts round Nar, and while the Romans were seeking means to punish the foe, who, however, con-

trived to escape by hastily retreating northwards, the Samnites made an unexpected inroad into Roman territory. The Romans, ever prompt to revenge a wrong, marched into Samnium, and defeated the Samnites at Bovianum. They had also defeated the Etruscans at Volaterræ, and the latter were already treating for peace, when negotiations were broken off by a message from the Samnites offering to march to their assistance. The allies summoned the Gauls to their aid, and the contending forces met at Sentinum, in Umbria (295 B.C.). The consuls in command of the Romans were Quintus Fabius Maximus and Publius Decius Mus. The Romans were giving way before the Gauls, when Decius, in imitation of his father, rushed to death in the enemy's ranks. His fall so exasperated his men that they rallied, and, after a hard-fought battle, remained masters of the field. The Gauls went home, and the Etruscans sued for peace, but the Samnites determined to maintain the struggle single-handed. They invaded Campania, and defeated a Roman army under another Quintus Fabius, the son of Quintus Fabius Maximus (293 B.C.); but, in the following year, Quintus Fabius, assisted by his illustrious father, completely defeated the Samnites, and took prisoner Caius Pontius, whom he subsequently caused to be put to death, after leading him through Rome to grace his triumph. The war languished through 291 B.C., but the grasp of Rome on Samnium was too tightly fixed to be shaken off, and, in the year after, the Samnites, broken and dispirited, once more made overtures for peace, and became the allies and dependents of Rome, which, by her conquests, may now be considered to have attained the rank of the most powerful state of the Italian peninsula.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of Third		Defeat of the Samnites,
Samnite War .....	B.C. 298	and capture of Caius
Battle of Sentinum .....	" 295	Pontius .....
Defeat of Quintus Fabius ..	293	Close of the War .....
		" 290

## CHAPTER V.

FROM THE END OF THE SAMNITE WARS TO THE SUBJUGATION  
OF THE ITALIAN PENINSULA.

290 B.C. to 266 B.C.

## 1. KING PYRRHUS IN ITALY—BATTLE OF HERACLEA.

THE Lucanians, a people of Southern Italy, who had given aid to the Romans in their wars with the Samnites, began about this time to attempt the subjugation of Thurii, in the Gulf of Tarentum, and other cities founded on the southern coasts of Italy by Greek colonists. The Greeks appealed to Rome for assistance, and the Romans ordered the Lucanians to desist. On this the southern nations formed a league

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B.C.

with the Etruscans against Rome, and a fresh war broke out. The Etruscans had procured the aid of the Senones, a nation of Cisalpine Gaul, and it was against these that the Romans first sent troops in considerable force. The Romans met with some reverses at the commencement of the war, but the ultimate result of the campaign in the north was the complete subjugation of Etruria and the country of the Senones, and the founding of the colony of Sena, now Sinigaglia, on the Adriatic. In the south of Italy they were equally successful. The Lucanians were defeated, and Thurii and other Greek cities voluntarily entered into alliance with their protector, and became, indeed, part and parcel of the Roman State.

The Romans now sought occasion to obtain possession of the powerful city and state of Tarentum, at the head of the gulf of that name; and an excuse for war was found in an attack made by the Tarentines on a small fleet of Roman galleys, which had entered the harbour contrary to the terms of a treaty which had long existed between Rome

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B.C.

and Tarentum. The demand of the Romans for satisfaction for the defeat and destruction of most of the galleys was refused in a most insulting manner, and war against Tarentum was determined on.

Unable to defend themselves, the Tarentines and their allies were obliged to call in the assistance of Pyrrhus, king of Epirus, to save them from impending ruin. This prince,

who was possessed of great courage, ambition, and power, was reckoned one of the most experienced generals of his time, and commanded a body of troops then supposed to be the best disciplined in the world. Soon 271  
 after he was applied to by the Tarentines, he put B.C.  
 to sea with three thousand horse, twenty thousand foot, twenty elephants, and some slingers and archers.

Upon his arrival at Tarentum, he observed a total dissolution of manners in this luxurious city, and that the inhabitants were occupied with the pleasures of bathing, feasting, dancing, rather than with the care of preparing for war. He therefore gave orders that all their places of public entertainment should be shut up, and that they should be restrained in all such amusements as rendered soldiers effeminate.

The king of Epirus offered to mediate between the Romans and the people of Tarentum ; but the consul Lævinus, who had been sent with a numerous body of forces to interrupt his progress, replied, that he neither valued him as a mediator, nor feared him as an enemy. The two hostile armies approached, and Lævinus encamped on the banks of the Siris, while Pyrrhus disposed his forces for the protection of Heraclea, between which and the north bank of the Siris lay a broad and open plain. At last the Romans crossed the river, and commenced the engagement, which, after some time, became general. The Greeks fought with a consciousness of their former fame, and the Romans with a desire of gaining fresh laurels. Two such differently disciplined armies had never before opposed each other ; and it is yet disputed whether, at that time, the Greek phalanx, or the Roman legion, was preferable. The Romans had seven times repulsed the enemy, and were as often driven back themselves ; but at length the elephants, by their intrepid fierceness, and by the castles that were raised upon their backs, and filled with armed men, decided the engagement in favour of the Greeks. Fifteen thousand Romans were killed on the spot, and two thousand were taken prisoners. Pyrrhus was himself wounded, and lost four thousand of his troops. "Such another victory," said he, "would ruin my whole army."

It may be useful, at this point, to give some explanation of the difference that existed between the Grecian phalanx

and the Roman legion. The phalanx was a large body of men, drawn up in the form of a square, in close order, which, by sheer force of its weight and compactness, drove everything before it in a charge, and, like a square of British infantry, could not be broken by cavalry charges. The following account of its constitution and the formation of the Roman legion is taken from Smith's "Ancient History:" The phalanx "was based on the *Lochus*, or band of sixteen men as its first unit, and this number expressed the regular depth of each file. Its chief component part was the *Pentacosiarchy*, or Regiment of Five Hundred, which consisted of 512 men, besides ten supernumeraries, being made up of two squares of 256 men, 16 on each face of the square, each square comprising 16 lochi. The name of this square was *Lyntagma*, which signifies a body drawn up in array. Such a regiment formed a body complete in all its equipments, and capable of acting by itself as a phalanx. Eight of these regiments, or sixteen squares, formed the simple phalanx of 4,096 men, and four times that number the quadruple phalanx of 16,384."

"The Roman legion was at first arrayed as a phalanx; but at the time of the great Latin war, it had been remodelled into that more open order, for a full account of which the reader is referred to the works on Roman antiquities. It was drawn up in three lines at moderate intervals, called the *hastati*, *principes*, and *triarii*, but the last line was triple, so that there were really five lines in all. The *hastati* in the front line, were the youths who were making their first experience of war; the *principes*, those in the full vigour of manhood; and these two formed the van under the common name of *Antepilani*, 'those before the *pilani*' (javelin men), another name for the *Triarii*, or third rank. The latter were the main rank consisting of veterans, of whom those best tried formed the front line of *veterani*, or *triarii* proper; behind them were the *rorarii*, of younger and less famous soldiers, and last of all the *accensi* or supernumeraries. The central line of *triarii* proper may be regarded as the nucleus of the whole force, with two lines in front that could fall back between its open columns, if driven in, and two other lines in the rear to advance to its support. Each line was formed of fifteen maniples or companies (*manipuli*), consisting of sixty privates, two centurions or captains, and an



ensign (*vexillarius*). The maniples were drawn up with a space between them on each side, and were formed in open order, each man having a free space to wield his weapons. This open order in which so much scope was given to the powers of the individual soldiers, the system of separate lines, supporting each other at intervals, and the greater breadth of front formed the great distinctions between the legion and the phalanx."

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

War with the Lucanians, &c. ....	B.C. 283	Defeat of Lucanians by Caius Fabricius .....	B.C. 282
Defeat of the Senones by the Romans.....	" 283	Declaration of War against Tarentum.....	" 282
Defeat of Etruscans at the Vadimonian Lake .....	" 283	Battle of Heraclea—Ro- mans defeated by Pyrrhus ..	280

## 2. NEGOCIATIONS—CINEAS AND FABRICIUS.

The Romans, though defeated, were still unsubdued. With all necessary diligence they began to recruit their forces, and oppose the conqueror, who, joined by the southern states of Italy, was marching directly towards Rome. Pyrrhus, unwilling to drive the republic to an extremity, and finding that they were making preparations, sent his friend Cineas, the orator, to negotiate, and use all his eloquence to induce them to peace. Cineas began his negotiation by attempting to influence, not only the senators, but also their wives, by presents, which he pretended were sent them by his master, but which the Romans would not accept. The proposals which Cineas had been empowered by Pyrrhus to make were, that the Romans should abandon all attempts to hold dominion over the cities that had been founded by Greek colonists, and that they should relinquish Campania, and restore Luceria and Venusia, new Roman colonies on Samnite territory, to the latter of which the consul Lævinus had withdrawn the remnants of his army after his defeat at Heraclea, and all the rest of the lands conquered from the Samnites to their former owners.

Never was there a time, in the history of any nation, in which all the military and patriotic virtues shone with greater lustre than now at Rome. The senators having by a late law reduced their fortunes more on a level with those of the people, began to seek distinction from virtue alone, and despised those riches which could not be increased to such a

peace, and the happy opportunity of restoring it. He offered, in would consent to the terms proposed on any future occasion ; and alliance and friendship, together the Tarentines included in this was affected with these offers eloquence of the orator ; and prevailed in favour of the king's

At this critical juncture, Agesilaus who was grown blind with age, public business, caused himself to be carried in a litter. On seeing this venerable senator, the whole assembly was agitated. He reprobated the idea of Pyrrhus, and observed that, if the king of Epirus in the field, Italy would treat them with compassion to avoid one war, they would avoid a hundred. This speech inflamed the senate of patriotism, and removed the influence of the orations of Cineas had made on

The senate dismissed him with the command that Pyrrhus must withdraw his forces. He would treat with him on the terms proposed. He returned to his master to report. The king, who had induced more

Domitius Calvinus, who had been made dictator in the emergency, prepared to dispute his further advance on the city. Another army too, under the consul Coruncanius, which was preparing to march into Etruria, was set at liberty to act against him by the submission of the Etruscans, who had already repented of their alliance with Pyrrhus, and the king saw that he had no alternative but to retire to Tarentum, where he spent the winter. 280  
B.C.

Soon after his arrival there, the senate sent Fabricius to him to treat for an exchange of prisoners, but the king refused to hear him unless the Romans would agree to make peace on the terms previously proposed by Cineas. He attempted to induce Fabricius to promise to use his influence at Rome to procure the consent of the senate, first by bribery, and then by menacing him with sudden destruction by an elephant, but neither greed of gain nor fear of death could influence the Roman general to act against the dictates of his conscience, and matters on both sides remained as they were.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Advance of Pyrrhus on Rome..... B.C. 280

### 3. THE BATTLE OF ASCULUM—PYRRHUS LEAVES ITALY.

The Roman troops had now recovered from their late defeat, and the panic which had formerly seized the soldiers from the sight of the elephants had begun to wear off, and accordingly, when Pyrrhus opened the summer campaign by entering Apulia and laying siege to Asculum, the Roman consuls marched in haste to the relief of the beleaguered town. The opposing forces met near the city, and both were nearly equal in numbers. At first, the Roman legions were unable to pierce the Greek phalanx; but, becoming careless of their own lives, a dreadful slaughter ensued on both sides. However, after a long and obstinate engagement, the Grecian discipline prevailed, and the Romans were obliged to retire to their camp, leaving six thousand men dead on the field of battle. The enemy also lost four thousand of their best men. When, therefore, one of the soldiers of Pyrrhus congratulated him upon his victory, "One such triumph more," replied he, "and I shall be undone." 279  
B.C.

This battle finished the campaign, and Pyrrhus withdrew

B.C. year, the Romans marching  
king of Epirus.

While the two armies were approaching  
distance from each other, a letter from  
the Roman consul, from the king, offered  
adequate reward, offered to take  
and thus rid the Romans of a dangerous  
war. This base proposal excited  
of Fabricius, who, after communicating  
informed Pyrrhus of the affair, and  
choice of friends and enemies, observed  
and promoted murderers, while he  
against the generous and the brave.

Pyrrhus now perceived that  
refined than the Greeks, would be  
superior, even in generosity; and  
with as much amazement at their  
the treachery of his physician.  
exclaimed he, "it would be as easy  
course as thee from the paths of  
his physician to be executed, he  
all his prisoners without ransom,  
ciate a peace. The Romans, however,  
a negotiation, but upon the same  
offered before, and released as  
Tarentines as equalled the number

Pyrrhus therefore, w

the Carthaginians from every part of Sicily except of Messina and Lilybæum. His victories, however, were rather splendid than useful, and his Sicilian allies refused to grant him reinforcements and supplies to his work, on account of his severity and the despotic of his government, he made this a pretence

276

B.C.

g the island, and returned to Tarentum and of twenty thousand foot and three horse. The Roman consuls, Lentulus and Curius prepared to levy troops to renew the war; but being unwilling to enlist, they commanded the natives to be drawn by lot, and that he who first take the field should be sold as a slave. This severity had its effect, and the same measure was employed on similar occasions. At last, after some consuls took the field, Curius marching to Bene-  
Campania, and Lentulus entering Lucania.

ing of Epirus, avoiding the army of Lentulus, against Curius at Beneventum: a general engaged between the Greeks and the Romans; and ending the balance of the victory turning against more had recourse to his elephants. These, however rendered furious by some balls of fire which were amongst them, fell back upon their own army, bearing ranks, and filling all places with terror and confusion, after a long struggle, victory declared in the Romans, and Pyrrhus lost twenty-  
thousand of his best soldiers, and his camp  
elephants were also taken. After this

275

B.C.

embarked his troops and bade an eternal adieu to leaving a garrison at Tarentum, merely to save appearance keep his allies from despair, by inducing them to at they should receive speedy assistance

272

B.C.

ence. The Romans made themselves masters of Tarentum, and demolished its walls, gave the inhabitants liberty and protection under their laws.

After the fall of Tarentum, Rome became mistress of the countries in Italy, from the remotest part of Etruria to the Tyrrhenian Sea, and from the Tyrrhenian to the Adriatic. In all the different states in that tract lost their independence, they did not all enjoy the same privileges:

some were entirely subjected to the Roman laws ; some were allowed to live under their original institutions ; some were tributary ; some were allies ; some enjoyed all the privileges of denizens of Rome ; and others were admitted to a right of suffrage in the elections of the Campus Martius.

Rome had now reached a period at which her wars for self-existence and supremacy in the Italian peninsula were to be superseded by a series of sanguinary struggles for the mastery over foreign nations with which she was to be brought in contact.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Battle of Asculum ... B.C. 279	Pyrrius returns to Epirus B.C. 275
Pyrrius leaves Tarentum	Acquirement of Tarentum
for Sicily ..... " 278	by Rome ..... " 272
Return of Pyrrius to Italy " 276	Final Conquest of all Italy
Battle of Beneventum ... " 275	by Rome ..... " 266

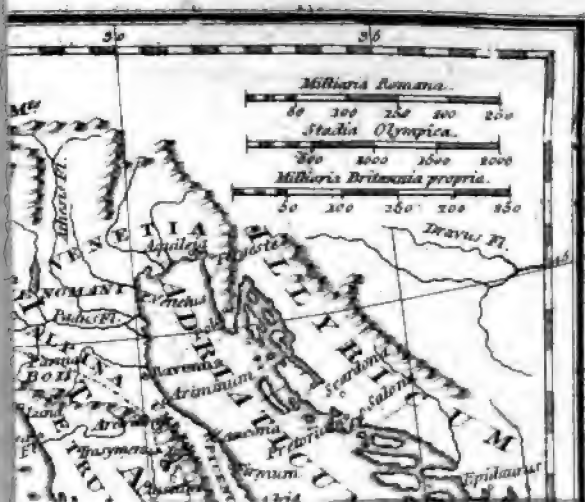
### CHAPTER V.

#### THE FIRST STRUGGLE WITH CARTHAGE.

265 B.C. to 241 B.C.

##### 1. THE ROMANS IN SICILY—THE FIRST PUNIC WAR—ROME AS A NAVAL POWER.

THE Romans being obliged to import supplies from foreign nations, the people began secretly to wish for the possession of Sicily, which had for some time served as the granary of Rome. At that time the Carthaginians possessed the greatest part of the sea-coast of the island, having regained their footing there after the departure of Pyrrius, and, like the Romans, only wanted an opportunity of embroiling the natives, in order to become masters of the whole of it. It so happened that Hiero, king of Syracuse, had since 270 B.C. been closely besieging the Mamertines, or pirate-people of Messina, descended from a body of Campanian mercenaries, who, after lending assistance to one of the kings of Syracuse against his enemies, had seized Messina and settled there, styling themselves Mamertines, or "Sons of Mars." These men saw that the only means of escape from their relentless foe was to become Roman or Carthaginian in point of nationality, and, deciding that Roman citizenship would confer on them the most advantages, to ward off impending



ces of annoyance and loss to the Romans, by reason of frequent and spirited sallies made from them by Hamilcar his followers.

he Mamertines, with the name of allies, boldly declared

war against Carthage, alleging that the Carthaginians had lately assisted the southern parts of Italy against Rome. Thus was commenced the conflict to which the name of the First Punic War was assigned.

The Romans were not long in finding that an insurmountable obstacle was opposed to their ambitious views, by the Carthaginians possessing a very powerful fleet, and having the entire command at sea. However, a Carthaginian vessel happening to be driven ashore in a storm, the Romans diligently set about imitating this ship, and, on the same plan, built one hundred and twenty vessels with amazing expedition. The Romans being to a great extent ignorant of maritime affairs, were first taught to row on land, and instructed, as well as circumstances would permit, in the manner of naval engagements. With this newly-constructed armament, the consul Caius

**260** Duillius ventured to sea ; and, the two rival fleets meeting in battle off Mylæ, now Milazzo, on the north coast of Sicily, the Carthaginians lost forty-five of their ships, and the undisturbed sovereignty of the sea, which they valued more. A column was erected in the Forum at Rome in honour of the first great naval victory that the Romans had ever gained, ornamented with the beaks of the captured vessels. The battle was won by the peculiar tactics resorted to by the Romans of grappling the enemy's ships, and boarding them by means of a bridge provided for the purpose.

The Romans prosecuted the war by establishing a naval station at Aléria, in Corsica, and using this as a base for the subjugation of Sardinia. In this they were not successful, while Hamilcar gave them considerable trouble and annoyance by his frequent descents on the coast of Italy. A

**257** second, great sea-fight off Tyndaris, on the north coast of Sicily, seems to have been won by the Romans, although the Carthaginians also claimed the victory, for the former, almost immediately after, took possession of the Lipari Islands and Malta. The Romans, however, soon became sensible that the conquest of Sicily was only to be secured by humbling the power of Carthage at home. Resolving, therefore, to carry the war into Africa, they sent Marcus Atilius Regulus and his colleague, Lucius Manlius Vulso, with a fleet of three



hundred sail, and one hundred and forty thousand men, to make the invasion.

Regulus was reckoned the most consummate warrior that Rome could then produce. He was a professed example of frugal severity ; but less austere to others than to himself, he only reprehended those faults which he would have died rather than have committed. His patriotism was greater than even his temperance ; and all the private passions seemed extinguished in him, or swallowed up in one great ruling affection, the love of his country. As if he had entertained a presentiment of his misfortunes, he was unwilling to accept this last commission, and wrote to the senate an excuse in the following terms : " A day-labourer, taking advantage of the death of the farmer who held my field, amounting to six acres, has robbed me of my implements of husbandry, and fled. My presence is, therefore, necessary for the cultivation of it, without which I cannot possibly maintain my wife and children." The senate immediately obviated this difficulty by taking the charge of his domestic concerns on themselves, and ordered Regulus to continue his command. Accordingly, the two  
generals set sail with their fleet of three hundred  
and thirty ships, which was the greatest that had  
ever yet left an Italian port, and carried one hundred  
thousand sailors and an army of forty thousand men.

256

B.C.

They were met not far from Himera, the port of embarkation on the south coast of Sicily, by the Carthaginians, with a fleet even more powerful, and manned by sailors better exercised in naval affairs. The Romans, however, grappling with them, were finally successful, and the enemy's fleet was dispersed ; sixty-four vessels being taken, and twenty-four sunk. In consequence of this victory, an immediate descent was made on the coast of Africa, and the city of Clypea captured, together with twenty thousand men, who were made prisoners of war.

The senate being informed of these great successes, ordered Manlius back to Italy to superintend the Sicilian war, and continued Regulus in Africa, under the title of proconsul. In the meantime, the Carthaginians, finding that the Romans were making rapid advances to their very capital, attacked them with a considerable army, but were defeated with great loss. This and the defection of their allies, to-

gether with the submission of more than eighty of their towns, induced the Carthaginians to endeavour to obtain a peace. The terms proposed by Regulus were the cession of Sicily and Sardinia, the surrender of the Carthaginian fleet, and a treaty of alliance by which Carthage became bound to furnish a certain contingent of ships to the Roman navy. These, however, were considered to be too rigid, so the treaty was broken off, and both sides resolutely prepared for the continuance of the war. The Carthaginians obtained from Sparta a general who was called Xanthippus, and who levied and disciplined men for the army which he was to command. An engagement took place, and the Romans, after an obstinate resistance, were overthrown with dreadful slaughter, the greatest part of their army being destroyed, and Regulus himself taken prisoner.

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B.C.

This great and unexpected victory filled the inhabitants of Carthage with ungovernable joy; and they could never sufficiently satisfy themselves with gazing on the conqueror, though he was only small in stature, and of a very mean appearance. But their admiration was soon turned into envy; for they could not bear to owe to a stranger that safety which they wanted virtue and abilities to procure for themselves. Xanthippus was not ignorant of their malignity, and wishing to lessen their malevolence, requested permission to resign his command, and desired a ship to convey him to his own country. If historians say true, their ingratitude on this occasion was even more disgraceful than their former jealousy and rancour; for pretending to furnish him with the most honourable conveyance, they gave the mariners private orders to throw him and his companions overboard, lest the honour of obtaining so great a victory should be ascribed to a stranger. Thus the term Punic faith has been used to signify deceit; and Punic reward may express the basest ingratitude.

For some time, the affairs of the Carthaginians continued to improve, while those of Rome seemed to decline. The remains of the Roman army were besieged in Clypea, a city on the coast of Africa, which Regulus had taken; and though it was for a while relieved by means of a naval victory, gained by Æmilius Paulus off the Hermæan promontory, now Cape Bon, in which the Carthaginians lost

and fourteen ships, they were ultimately obliged to leave the place. Soon after the fleet had sailed it was destroyed by a fearful storm, in which nearly two hundred of the ships of which it was composed were lost.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

the Mamertines		Sea fight off Himera—	
the Carthaginians	B.C. 266	Carthaginians defeated	B.C. 256
alliance between		Invasion of Carthage by	
Rome and Carthage	" 264	the Romans	" 256
Romans nearly mas-		Regulus defeated by Xan-	
sacred Sicily	" 262	thippus	" 255
Roman fleet built	" 261	Sea fight off Hermean	
off Mylae—Car-		Promontory—Cartha-	
thaginians defeated	" 260	ginians defeated	" 255
off Tyndaris—		Evacuation of Carthage	
Carthaginians defeated	" 257	by the Romans, and	
Roman fleet sails to in-		destruction of Roman	
Carthage	" 256	fleet in a storm	" 255

THE FIRST PUNIC WAR (*continued*)—THE STRUGGLE IN SICILY.

On news of the destruction of the Roman fleet was sent to Carthage, the Carthaginians, who had already lost much of the old spirit that had animated them before Hannibal's reverses, were encouraged to make every effort to retrieve their position in Sicily, and even carry the war into Roman Italy; and Hasdrubal, with a large army and a hundred elephants, landed at Lilybæum. The Romans, however, were not been idle. With a perseverance which marked their character, they built a new fleet, and having attacked the Carthaginians, took it by storm, and all the ports held by the Carthaginians on the north coast of Sicily, Thermæ. The Roman fleet was then sent on an expedition to lay waste the sea-board of the Carthaginian territory, but on its return it was overtaken by a storm near Palinurus in Lucania, and the greater part of it destroyed. Thus frustrated in every attempt, the Romans, for a while, gave up the idea of rivalling the Carthaginians at sea, and directed their attention to the conquest of Sicily, which they in a measure effected. Thermæ was taken (252 B.C.), and a decisive victory obtained, by Caius Cæcilius Metellus, over

the Carthaginians, before Panormus, in which the latter lost  
**250** twenty thousand men and a hundred and twenty  
 B.C. elephants. These successes led the Romans to  
 build and equip another fleet, and to attack Lily-  
 bæum and Drepanum, the strongholds of the Carthaginians  
 in Sicily, by land and sea.

However, so many years of disastrous war had exhausted the Carthaginian resources, and they again showed an inclination for peace. They resolved to send to Rome to negotiate this business, or at least procure an exchange of prisoners; and for this purpose, they employed Regulus, who had been treated with great severity, and kept in a dungeon during five years, and from whom they exacted a promise to return in case of being unsuccessful. When this illustrious Roman appeared before the senate, he dissuaded them from concluding a peace with the Carthaginians, whose forces, he said, were reduced, and whose finances were so exhausted, that they could no longer pay the mercenaries that were their chief strength. We do not know that the senate offered to cede any of the interests of the republic to save the generous captive, but some of that body were eager to prove that he was under no obligation to return to Carthage and fulfil an engagement exacted by force. Regulus, however, indignantly replied, "Though I know that tortures await me at Carthage, I prefer them to an act which would cover me with infamy in my tomb." After his return, he was thrown into a dungeon into which no light could penetrate, and from this, after a brief interval, he was taken to be exposed to the burning rays of an African sun, his eye-lids being first cut off. He was then inclosed in a box pierced with iron spikes, in which he expired. The senate of Rome delivered the principal of the Carthaginian prisoners, including the generals Hamilcar and Bostar, to his wife Marcia, who caused them to suffer a slow death, in tortures like those inflicted on her husband.

The Romans now devoted all their energies to prosecuting the siege of Lilybæum and Drepanum, but their efforts were powerless to prevent the relief of either town by cutting off reinforcements and supplies from Carthage. Indeed, at this  
**249** period of the war they again suffered some con-  
 B.C. siderable reverses, for the Roman fleet, under the  
 consul Publius Claudius Pulcher, was totally  
 defeated before Drepanum, an event which tended to raise

the siege of Lilybæum, and which was followed by a large number of transports, which were chased Carthaginian cruisers into the unprotected roadsteads of Camarina, on the south coast of Sicily, where they were wrecked.

Several years no incident of any striking character interrupted the continuance of the struggle between Rome and Carthage. The command of the troops and vessels which the Carthaginians still maintained in Sicily was given to Hannibal, surnamed Barca, or "Lightning," and in 247 B.C. that he was commissioned to maintain his honour on Sicilian soil and in Italian

his son Hannibal, destined to become in after-time so famous a scourge to Rome, was born. He built a fort on the commanding Panormus, from which he was able to inflict continual annoyance on the Roman troops that held the island, and made continual descents on the Italian

with his restless cruisers. Subsequently, he removed his troops to a fortress on Mount Eryx, which had been taken from the Romans, but his soldiers were expelled in the following year (243 B.C.) by the consul Claudius, while the year after a new Roman fleet, fitted for private enterprise, and handed over to the Roman command, destroyed his cruisers, and rendered the blockade of Lilybæum and Drepanum effective. The Carthaginians sent a fleet to endeavour to raise the siege, but it was destroyed, and partly captured, by the Romans, in a battle off the group of islands known as the Ægates, near the western extremity of Sicily.

The perseverance of the Romans was at last crowned with success, and the Carthaginians were obliged to sue for peace, and Hamilcar, who still maintained his position on Mount Eryx, full powers to arrange the terms of

Among other particulars, it was stipulated that Carthage should pay three thousand two hundred talents, a sum equivalent to £790,000, one third immediately in cash, the rest in ten equal yearly instalments, to defray the expenses of the war; that Sicily, with all the neighbouring islands, should be surrendered to Rome; and that all the prisoners should be sent home without ransom.

The same year Sicily was formed into a Roman province, and Carthage, indeed, the first of the great dependencies

Defeat and destruction of Roman fleet off Cape Palinurus .....	„ 253
Capture of Thermæ by the Romans .....	„ 252
Roman victory before Pa- normus .....	„ 252
Carthaginians sue for peace—Death of Regu- lus .....	„ 250

## CHAPTER

### BETWEEN THE FIRST AND

241 B.C. to

#### I. ANNEXATION OF SARDINIA OF JARVIS

It will be remembered that  
Carthage for many years, an  
238 Romans to take poss  
B.C. Punic War had beer  
merchants who had  
sought Rome to take possession  
under the pretence that these

caused his young son Hannibal, then only nine  
age, to swear on the altar of his country's gods, to  
nal enmity to Rome, and leave no means untried to  
her power—an oath which he kept and carried out  
ipulous fidelity.

r of any great importance occupied the attention of  
an people at this time, although they were carrying  
ntest with the Ligurians and the Boii on their  
frontiers, which had broken out just before the  
m of the peace with Carthage that had brought the  
nic War to a conclusion. The Boii had summoned  
e tribes beyond the Alps to their aid, but had come  
with their allies instead of taking advantage of their  
to invade the Roman territory in force.

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mans, taking advantage of the quarrel and  
n of the Gauls who had crossed the Alps

B.C.

he Boii, fell upon the latter, defeated them, and took  
onsiderable portion of their land. The war with the  
s was also brought to an end shortly after, and as  
is now at peace with all her neighbours, the Temple  
, which had been built in the reign of Numa, was  
(35 B.C.) for the second time during the long period  
elapsed since its completion.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

an of Sardi-	Closing of the Temple of
..... B.C. 238	Janus..... B.C. 235

#### THE PIRATES OF ILLYRIA—WARS WITH THE GAULS.

leasures of peace by no means rendered the Romans  
; in making fresh preparations for war. After an  
of eight years, the Illyrians were the first people  
om they tried their strength. That nation  
plundered the merchants of the Mediterra-  
himpunity, and were impelled by their evil

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B.C.

make depredations upon some of the trading subjects  
A war ensued, in which the Romans were justly  
s, and obliged the Illyrians to conclude a peace, by  
he greatest part of the country was ceded to Rome,  
arly tribute exacted for the rest.

The Boii, Insubrians, and other tribes of Cisalpine Gaul, supposing that a time of peace, when the Roman armies were disbanded, was a proper season for new irruptions, formed a confederacy, and collecting a large body of troops, entered Etruria, and wasted all with fire and sword till they came within about three days' journey of Rome. The Romans, who had hastily prepared to meet the enemy, surrounded the Gauls, who still retained their antiquated mode of fighting, and who, having nothing but their courage to protect them, in vain formed two fronts to oppose their adversaries. Their unprotected bodies and undisciplined forces were unable to withstand the shock of an enemy completely armed and skilled in military evolutions; and a dreadful carnage ensued, in which forty thousand men were killed, and ten thousand taken prisoners. The result of this great battle, which was afterwards known as the battle of Telamon, was the acquisition of most of the country south of the Po (224 B.C.), which was taken from the conquered Boii. In the year following a Roman army marched across the Po against the Insubrians. Mediolanum, now called Milan, their capital, was taken (222 B.C.) by the consul Cneius Cornelius Scipio, while his colleague Marcus Claudius Marcellus, gained great honour by killing in battle Viridomarus, their king, with his own hand. These conquests forced the Gauls to beg a peace, the conditions of which served greatly to enlarge the boundaries of the empire, though certainly not to strengthen its barriers on that side.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Defeat of the Illyrian		Capture of Milan, and
Pirates .....	B.C. 227	death of Viridoma-
Battle of Telamon.....	„ 225	rus ..... B.C. 222

### 3. THE CAUSE OF A FRESH RUPTURE WITH CARTHAGE— HANNIBAL—SAGUNTUM.

It is now necessary to return for a time to Hamilcar, and the course of action that he resolved on taking, after quelling the insurrection at home that had followed the conclusion of peace with Rome, and which had prevented Carthage from asserting her right to Sardinia when it was annexed by Rome.



It was necessary, he thought, to secure for Carthage colonial dependencies as important and extensive as those of which she had been deprived by Rome, and with this view turned his eyes towards Spain. The subjugation of the western peninsula of Europe, would, he considered, afford Carthage the means of recruiting herself at any time with all materials of war—men, money, and provisions, and in addition to this, furnish a base of operations for attacking Rome on her northern frontier. With this view he passed, without the sanction of the Carthaginian senate, into Spain, where he founded New Carthage, and eagerly entered on a career of conquest. He had acquired mastery over a considerable portion of the peninsula, and had drilled and disciplined many of the native tribes, when he fell (229 B.C.) in an expedition against the Vettones—a tribe in the west of the peninsula.

In the administration of Spain, after the death of Hamilcar, he passed into the hands of his son-in-law, Hasdrubal who carried on the government for eight years without any opposition on the part of the Romans, who, however, made a treaty with Hasdrubal by which they were accepted as the protectors of the Greek colonies of Emporiæ and Saguntum, while it was stipulated that the river Iberis, now the Ebro, should be considered as the line of demarcation between the rival empires of Rome and Carthage. In 221 B.C. Hasdrubal fell under the dagger of the assassin, and the choice of Hannibal as commander-in-chief in Spain by the army was readily accepted by the senate and people at home.

Hannibal, who was now twenty-six years old, as it will be remembered, had been made by his father the sworn foe of Rome about seventeen years previously, when he had caused him to vow upon the altar that he would never be in friendship with the Romans, nor desist from opposing their power so long as life and opportunity allowed, until he or they should die no more; and he was faithful to his engagement. When he first appeared in the field, he united in his own person the most masterly method of commanding, with the most perfect obedience to his superiors. He possessed the greatest courage in opposing, and the greatest presence of mind in the most dangerous danger. No fatigue could subdue his body, nor misfortune break his spirit; and, equally patient of heat and cold, he took sustenance only to content nature, and not

to gratify his appetite. His seasons for repose or labour were irregular and uncertain ; and he was always ready when difficulties or his country demanded his aid. Covered only with his watch-coat, he frequently stretched himself on the ground among his sentinels. His dress differed in nothing from the most ordinary men of his army, except in his affecting peculiar elegance in his horses and armour. He was always the foremost to engage, and the last to retreat. He was prudent in his designs, which were extensive, and ever fertile in expedients to perplex his enemies, or rescue himself from danger. He was experienced, sagacious, provident, and bold. Such were the valuable qualities of this illustrious soldier, who is universally allowed to be the greatest general of antiquity. On the other hand, he was cruel and faithless, void of honour and religion, and yet possessed the art of simulation to such a degree, that he assumed the appearance of them all.

From such a soldier and politician, the Carthaginians formed the greatest expectations ; and his actions soon confirmed that their opinion of his abilities was justly founded. The short

**219** space of two years, after his election to the supreme  
B.C. command in Italy, was spent in subduing the tribes

immediately south of the Ebro, and the expiration of this period brought him before Saguntum, a town under the protection of Rome, to which he laid siege on the pretext that the Saguntines had done some wrong to a Spanish tribe under the protection of, and in alliance with Carthage. Instead of sending troops to the assistance of the doomed city, the Romans called on Hannibal to abandon the siege, and, in consequence of his refusal to do so, sent an embassy to Carthage. The senate gave an unsatisfactory reply, suggesting to the Romans that an alliance with Carthage was certainly preferable to one with Saguntum. Simultaneously with the return of the envoys, the news of the capture of the city reached Rome, and war with Carthage was felt by all to be inevitable.

**218** A last effort to preserve peace was made by the  
B.C. Roman senate, who sent ambassadors to Carthage to ascertain if Hannibal's acts in Spain were supported

by the senate. The Carthaginians assumed all responsibility, whereupon Fabius, the principal ambassador, declared war against them in the name of the Roman senate and people, and immediately set sail for Rome. Thus was the peace of

ty-four years broken, and the life and death struggle for mastery between Rome and Carthage once more renewed.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

of the Carthaginian	Hannibal to supreme
eral Hamilcar in	command in Spain ..... B.C. 221
in while fighting	Siege and Capture of Sa-
inst the Vettones ... B.C. 229	guntum by Hannibal ... „ 219
ination of Hasdrubal	Declaration of War against
appointment of	Carthage by Rome ..... „ 218

## CHAPTER VII.

RENEWAL OF THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN ROME AND  
CARTHAGE.

218 B.C. to 201 B.C.

## 1. HANNIBAL'S MARCH INTO ITALY.

On taking Saguntum, Hannibal overran all Spain. He spent the winter in taking measures for the defence of the Carthaginian territory in Spain and Africa, and having levied a large army of various languages and nations, and entered into alliance with the conquered Insubrians and Boii on the north side of the Alps, and the Gallic tribes lying to the west of these mountains, he resolved to carry the war into Italy. Leaving his brother, Hasdrubal, in Spain with a large force of infantry and cavalry and the greater part of the navy, he marched over the Pyrenees into Gaul, with an army of thirty thousand foot and nine thousand horse. He crossed the Rhone, near Avignon, about the end of July, and marched onwards along the east bank of that river. After a short stay among the Allobroges, he arrived about the end of August at the foot of the Alps, over which he determined to make a new passage. In this march the Carthaginians encountered numberless and unforeseen calamities. At the end of fifteen days spent in crossing the mountains, Hannibal found himself in the middle of September, in the plains of Italy, with about twenty thousand infantry and six thousand cavalry remaining, the rest having died of the cold, or having been cut off by the natives.

As soon as it was known in Rome that Hannibal, at the head of a formidable army, had passed from Spain into Gaul, they proposed to cross the Alps, in order to invade their

wheeling round, attacked — length, obliged Scipio to retreat the Po, to a strong position on the Trebia. Here he was joined Sempronius Longus, who, on Scipio, by a severe wound received, assumed the chief command. The defection of the Gauls increased the army, Sempronius determined to fight. A decisive engagement took place. The Romans were totally routed, with the loss of the army. The men, either killed by the enemy or taken prisoner, were to repass the Trebia, which the enemy refused to do.

The loss of these two battles forced Hannibal to a new resolution. The Carthaginian general, finding it impossible to change the seat of war, resolved to return to his capital, by marching into Etruria, through the marshes, in which the Carthaginians had suffered the most inconceivable fatigues, and marching up

217 a position at Fæsulæ.  
R.C. Flaminius had now

ce of the senate and his confidential friends, came out to meet him near Lake Trasimene, near to which was a range of mountains, and between these and the lake, a narrow passage leading to a valley, embosomed in hills. In these hills Hannibal disposed his best troops, and into the valley, Flaminius led his men to attack him. As might have been expected, the Roman army was broken and destroyed almost before they could perceive the enemy destroyed them. About fifteen thousand Romans fell in the valley, and six thousand yielded themselves prisoners.

In the general carnage, the brave but unfortunate Flaminius lost all that courage could inspire for saving his army : for the enemy was most successful, he fled with a small body of his attendants to repel them ; but, at last, wearied of victory, and determined not to survive a defeat, he threw himself alone into the midst of the enemy, and was killed by a Gaulish horseman, who pierced him with his lance. After the battle, Hannibal detained the Roman prisoners, but civilly dismissed the Latins ; and ordered to give the consul an honourable interment, his body could not be recognized in such a mass of

the news of this defeat, after the general consternation in Rome measure subsided, the senate resolved to elect a general in whom they might repose their last hopes and confidence, and their choice fell on Quintus Fabius Maximus, a man of approved courage, but with a happy temper of caution, who was sensible that the only way of opposing the Carthaginians at such a distance from home, was to harass them rather than by fighting them. For this purpose he always encamped on the highest grounds, and when moved, he likewise took a new position, watched the motions, straitened their quarters, and cut off their supplies.

In vain Hannibal used every stratagem to bring on a battle ; the cautious Roman, then surnamed *Cunctator*, or "Delayer," kept aloof, and contented himself with harassing his enemy, in some measure, defeated by delay. Hannibal, perceiving that his adversaries had changed their mode of operations, tried his usual arts to render Fabius unpopular in the eyes of his own army. For this purpose, he sometimes braved him in his camp ; sometimes wasted the

country round him; always spoke of his abilities with contempt; and, in every incursion, spared the possessions of Fabius, while he plundered without mercy those of the other Romans. These Punic arts were not wholly unsuccessful. The Romans began to suspect their general either of treachery or cowardice; and a slight action which ensued soon after, gave strength to their suspicions.

However, the prudent Fabius began to turn Hannibal's own arts against him. He had inclosed that general among mountains in Campania, near the town of Casilinum, now Capua, on the Volturnus, where he had taken up an impregnable position. Here it was impossible for Hannibal to winter, and yet it was almost impracticable to extricate his army from the trap into which he had been enticed, without imminent danger. In this exigence, nothing but one of those stratagems which great men only are capable of forming, could save Hannibal. Having ordered a number of small faggots and lighted torches to be tied to the horns of two thousand oxen, which he had in his camp, he directed them to be driven towards the enemy. These tossing their heads, and running up the sides of the mountains, seemed to fill the whole neighbouring forest with fire; while the sentinels who were placed to guard the approaches of the mountain, seeing such an uncommon appearance advancing towards their posts, fell back in consternation, and supposed that the whole body of the enemy was in arms to overwhelm them. This stratagem enabled Hannibal to draw off his army, and escape through the defiles beneath the hills, with considerable damage however to his rear; and though Fabius had conducted himself in this affair with the prudence and conduct of the most consummate general, the army began to charge him with ignorance in war, as they had formerly impeached his valour and fidelity.

It is necessary now to revert for a brief space to a consideration of affairs in Spain. In 218 B.C., soon after Hannibal had entered Italy, Publius Scipio sent his brother, Cneius Scipio, into Spain with a powerful fleet and army, and this able general defeated the Carthaginian admiral, Hanno, in a sea fight, and reduced the whole of the peninsula north of the Ebro. In 217 B.C., Publius Scipio himself followed his brother into Spain, and the Romans then crossed the Ebro, and commenced the subjugation of

the part of Spain south of the Ebro, with the defence of which Hannibal had entrusted his brother Hasdrubal.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

March of the Alps by Hannibal (Aug., Sep.)... B.C. 218	Hannibal's march into Etruria—Defeat of Flaminius by Lake Trasimene..... B.C. 217
Scipio wounded ..... „ 218	Dictatorship of Fabius, called Cunctator ..... „ 217
Death of Sempronius on the Trebia ..... „ 218	

## 2. CONTINUANCE OF THE CAMPAIGNS IN ITALY—CANNÆ—CAPUA.

Fabius being obliged to lay down his office, Terentius Varro and Æmilius Paulus were chosen consuls. The former was prone to rely too much on his own ability and was overconfident, and had little but his self-confidence and his reputation to recommend him; the latter was experienced in the field, cautious in action, and impressed with an unfavorable idea of the abilities of his colleague. Hannibal, who had passed the winter at Gerunium, was at this time camped near the village of Cannæ in Apulia, waiting the approach of the Romans. Æmilius was entirely averse from fighting; but when it was the other consul's turn to command, Varro, without asking the concurrence of his colleague, gave the signal for battle. He then passed the river Aufidius, which lay between the two armies, and put his forces in battle. After a long and bloody engagement, the rout of the Roman army became general in every direction. Æmilius, however, still led on his body of horse, and endeavoured by his brave valour to retrieve the fortune of the day; but at length these were obliged to give way, and seek safety by flight, and Æmilius Paulus himself was slain. In this battle, the Romans lost seventy thousand men, two quaestors, fifty-one tribunes, eighty senators, and so many knights, that Hannibal sent three bushels of gold rings to Carthage, and that those of this order wore on their fingers by way of remembrance.

His terrible reverse was in a slight degree mitigated by the successes of the brothers Publius and Cneius Scipio in Spain, who defeated Hasdrubal, just about this time, when he was attempting to cross the Ebro, to take reinforcements to Hannibal in Italy.

It was now universally expected that Hannibal would march his army to the gates of Rome, and make it an easy conquest. In the city, terror appeared in every face, and despair was the language of every tongue. At length, after the first consternation had abated, the senate resolved to create a dictator, and appointed Claudius Marcellus to lead the armies. The delay of the Carthaginian general, inspired the people with fresh courage, and they made all possible preparations for another campaign; and though Hannibal once more offered them peace, they refused it, but upon condition that he should quit Italy.

In the meantime, Hannibal, either finding the impossibility of marching directly to Rome, or willing to give his forces rest after so important a victory, resolved to winter his troops in Capua, a city which had long been considered as the nurse of luxury, and the corrupter of military virtue. Here a new scene of pleasure opened to the Carthaginians, who gave themselves up to intoxication, till, from hardy veterans, they became effeminate rioters. Blame has been thrown by many on Hannibal for losing that happy occasion when fortune seemed propitious, and exchanging empire for dissipation; but it has not been sufficiently considered, that Rome was still extremely powerful, and that it might have been rashness in Hannibal to lead his troops to the siege of a city strongly defended by art, and containing a garrison more than four times as many as his army. It was necessary also for the Carthaginian general to seek for supplies and reinforcements from home, as Spain, his previous base of operations, being almost lost to him, to provide for the maintenance of his conquests in Italy, and to attach to himself allies.

In the last-named object, he was in a measure successful, by gaining a promise of co-operation against Rome from Philip, of Macedon, but this promise failed to act in accordance with the terms of the treaty. It seemed, too, as if Syracuse were about to resume her ancient relations with

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B.C.

Carthage, for the old king Hiero, the faithful ally of Rome, had died 216 B.C., and his grandson, Hieronymus, who had succeeded him on the throne of Syracuse, which, it must be remembered, had retained its independence, when the rest of Sicily had become a Roman province, had entered into alliance with Carthage, for which



he had been put to death. But notwithstanding this proof of the desire of the citizens to remain on terms of amity with Rome, emisaries of Hannibal contrived to excite the mob to repudiate the Roman alliance, and when Marcellus was sent over (214 B.C.) to restore matters to their former condition, the gates were closed against him contrary to the desire of the magistrates and chief officers of the city, who were put to death.

The Romans now sent three armies into the field against Hannibal, under the consuls, Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus and Quintus Fabius Maximus, the consuls for the year, and Marcellus, with the rank of pro-consul. Marcus Valerius, the prætor, was also sent to Lucena with a fourth army, to prevent the landing of the troops, which Hannibal expected to come to his aid from Macedonia. Marcellus took up a position on the heights near Nola, and having defeated Hannibal in an attempt to dialodge him, he followed the Carthaginians into Apulia, whither Hannibal had withdrawn after his failure before Nola. In the meantime the successes of the Romans in Spain were continued. A new Roman colony, well fortified, and possessing an excellent harbour, was formed at Tarraco, now Tarragona, and the Scipios defeated the Carthaginians in two sanguinary battles in the south of the peninsula. The remainder of the year was passed in Italy without any decisive action on either side, except the defeat of a body of Carthaginian troops under Hanno, near Beneventum, by Tiberius Gracchus. Capua was still held by the Carthaginians.

Unable to make any advance on Rome, Hannibal resolved to make an attempt to get possession of Tarentum, a port which would afford an easy mode of ingress for the Macedonians into Italy, if Philip could but be induced to send troops thither. But it was not until two years after he was permitted to enter the city, which was given up to him by the inhabitants. This period was more eventful abroad than at home, for Syracuse, which had been closely besieged by Marcellus by land and sea since 214 B.C., was surrendered. The Roman general, however, permitted his soldiers to pillage the city, and Archimedes, the greatest engineer and mathematician of the time, who had contributed greatly to prolong

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B.C.

214

B.C.

213

B.C.

and Syphax, the western portion. Syphax had sent his son, Masinissa, against the Romans, and Gala, who had compelled him to sue for peace into Spain was followed by disaster. By bribing the Spanish allies of Hasdrubal compelled the Roman his brother, Mago, and another attacked and cut to pieces the The united Carthaginian force under Cneius Scipio, and the remnants of the Roman army by Caius Marcus, and there Rome.

No sooner had Hannibal marched than he marched on 212 Capua, which was c B.C. He was successful Tarentum to spend the winter siege was renewed, and pressed Roman consuls. Unable to pelled to surrender shortly directed his march on Rome the city but finding the

Crispinus, were surprised by a body of Numidian horse, near Venusia, and killed.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Romans defeated at Cannæ B.C. 216	Surrender of Tarentum to Hannibal..... B.C. 212
Defeat of Hasdrubal in Spain..... " 216	Defeat and death of the Scipios in Spain ..... " 212
Renewed defeats of the Carthaginians in Spain " 215	Capua taken from Hannibal by the Romans..... " 211
Commencement of Siege of Syracuse..... " 214	Tarentum taken by Fabius " 209
Capture of Syracuse by the Romans..... " 212	Death of Marcellus near Venusia ..... " 208

### 3. THE CLOSE OF THE WAR IN ITALY—THE ROMANS IN AFRICA.

We must now return again for a short time to Spain, and trace the course of the war in that country after the Scipios met with defeat and death at the hands of the Carthaginians. At first the senate sent Caius Claudius Nero into the peninsula with twelve thousand men, but although successful in military operations, he was no match for the wily Carthaginian in diplomacy, and he was recalled and replaced by Publius Cornelius Scipio, the son of the dead Publius Scipio, who had already distinguished himself, though he was but twenty-four, at the battle on the banks of the Trebia and at Cannæ. He arrived in Spain late in the year 210 B.C., and his first act, in the spring of the year following, was to carry New Carthage, the Carthaginian capital in Spain, by assault with its fleet, stores, treasure, and munitions of war. He failed, however, in 208 B.C., to prevent Hasdrubal from leaving Spain to march over the Alps into Italy to the assistance of Hannibal. The sequel of the operations of the war in Spain may be told in a few words. A desultory war was kept up with the Romans through 207 B.C. by Hasdrubal, the son of Gisco, Mago, and the Numidian Masinissa, but the latter transferred his support from Carthage to Rome after a great battle in 206 B.C., in which Hasdrubal and Mago were completely defeated, and with difficulty escaped with life to Gades. Thence Mago sailed in the following year to Northern Italy, and after maintaining an unequal struggle there for two years, he was defeated by Quintilius Varus, and died of his wounds while on his return to Africa.

Hasdrubal, as it has been said, quitted Spain to carry assistance to his brother Hannibal, and passed over the Alps into Italy. He was met in his advance southwards, by the Roman consuls, Marcus Claudius Nero and Marcus Livius Salinator, on the banks of the Metaurus, and defeated and killed. A fortnight after, his head was thrown by the conquerors into Hannibal's camp at Canusium, in Apulia, where he was awaiting his brother's coming. He retired at once to the southern coast of Italy, to the Bruttian peninsula, where the Romans permitted him to linger without taking any measures to destroy the remnants of his forces. The hopelessness of his position was demonstrated more clearly by the conclusion of a peace with Philip of Macedonia by the Romans in 205 B.C. In this year Scipio, though not eligible for office as far as age was concerned, was made consul, and proceeded to Sicily to make preparations for the invasion of Africa, which was completed by the spring of the following year (204 B.C.)

Scipio, leaving Hannibal in Italy, accordingly passed over into Africa with a large fleet, and was joined by Masinissa, who had been driven from his dominions by Syphax, now the ally of Carthage. He landed near Utica, and Hanno opposed him, but was defeated and slain. Scipio then laid siege to Utica, but was compelled to retire on the approach of Syphax at the head of a numerous army, and go into winter quarters in the heights surmounting the embouchure of the Bagradas. In the following spring, the allied Carthaginians and Numidians renewed their attacks, but by a stratagem the Carthaginians were taken by surprise and defeated; and the Roman general then attacked the army of Syphax, whom he overthrew with the loss of forty thousand men killed, and six thousand captured. Soon after, Syphax was again defeated and taken prisoner, with his wife Sophonisba.

The Carthaginians, terrified at their repeated defeats, and the fame of Scipio's former successes, dispatched deputies to Hannibal, positively commanding him to return out of Italy, in order to oppose the Roman general, who threatened Carthage with a siege. Hannibal, though he had long foreseen the ruin of his country, but at the same time knew that Italy was the only place in which its fate could be suspended, obeyed the orders of Carthage with great submission, and left Italy with

his eyes, after having kept possession of the most important parts of it for above fifteen years.

At his arrival in Africa, he desired a meeting with Scipio to confer upon terms of peace, to which the Roman general assented. The two greatest generals in the world met at an interview in a large plain between their armies ; and each, for a while, silently regarded his opponent, as if with mutual reverence and esteem. In figure, Scipio was adorned with all the advantages of manly beauty. Hannibal, on the contrary, bore the marks of hard campaigns and misfortune ; and the loss of one eye, occasioned by an ophthalmia shortly after his first arrival in Italy, gave a sternness to his aspect.

Hannibal, the Carthaginian general, in opening the conference, described the ruinous effects of the long wars that had so long injured both countries, and in asking for peace, desired his rival to secure this great boon for Rome as well as for Carthage by being moderate in his demands, and proposing terms on which the latter could accede without loss of territory.

Scipio briefly replied that the only terms on which peace could be granted were the cession to Rome of Spain, the islands in the Mediterranean that had formerly belonged to Carthage, the surrender of the Carthaginian general, and the payment of 4000 talents for the expenses of the war. Furthermore, it was demanded that Masinissa be confirmed in the sovereignty of the whole of Numidia.

These terms Hannibal was both unable and unwilling to accept, and both sides returned to their respective camps to prepare for deciding the controversy with the sword.

The Roman and Carthaginian armies met at Zama, 202 B.C.

There was a more memorable battle fought,

where we regard the generals, the armies, the two contesting states, or the empire in dispute. On this occasion, Scipio disposed his men in a manner superior even to his own arrangements. The Carthaginians, however, were defeated, mainly by the persistence of the Roman infantry, and the brilliant charges of the Numidian horse led by Masinissa and the Roman cavalry under Lælius ; twenty thousand of them were killed in the battle or pursuit, and many more taken prisoners. Hannibal, who had

acquitted himself as a great general and an undaunted soldier, escaped with a few followers to Adrumetum, whence he was summoned by the senate to meet Scipio once more and arrange the terms of peace. These were rendered heavier in consequence of the success of Rome at Zama, and the Carthaginians were forced to submit to a treaty 201 which obliged them to quit Spain and all the B.C. islands in the Mediterranean Sea; to pay 10,000 talents in fifty years; to give hostages for the delivery of their ships and their elephants; to restore Masinissa all his territories; and not to make war in Africa, but by permission of the Romans. Thus ended the second Punic war, for bringing which to so glorious a termination Scipio received the surname of Africanus.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Capture of Carthago Nova, or New Carthage, by Scipio .....	B.C. 209	Invasion of Africa by Scipio .....	B.C. 204
March of Hasdrubal into Italy .....	" 207	Hannibal recalled by the Carthaginian Senate ...	" 203
Hasdrubal's defeat and death in the battle of the Metaurus .....	" 207	Battle of Zama—Romans victorious .....	" 202
		End of the Second Punic War .....	" 201

## CHAPTER VIII.

## THE WARS WITH MACEDONIA AND SYRIA.

201 B.C. to 146 B.C.

## 1. THE FIRST AND SECOND MACEDONIAN WARS.

It will be remembered that Hannibal was always anxious to enlist Philip of Macedon as an ally of Carthage in her second war with Rome, and the assistance lent him by Philip was but trifling—indeed far too small to be of any service. Philip's shortcomings in this matter arose from no disinclination to assist Carthage, but because ample employment was found for him at home in settling, or trying to settle the affairs of Greece, in which at that time Macedon was the predominant state. The conclusion of a war with Ætolia and the Greek states in alliance with her, to which the name of the Social War was given, and which was brought to an

17 B.C., set him at liberty to engage in other projects, though he still hesitated to send a fleet and troops to make an attack on the Roman possessions at Epirus. The Romans immediately recaptured Oricum, and the camp of Philip by assault, and thus in the First Macedonian War. They then entered into an alliance with Ætolia and the southern states against Philip (212 B.C.), and the confederacy was led by Attalus, king of Pergamus in Asia Minor. The Epirus, Macedonia, and Northern Greece were laid in intervals during the six years that followed, at the Ætolians, by this time alive to the need that foreign alliances on either side hanging on Greece, made peace with Philip, and the Romans who were then preparing for the invasion of Africa, came in the year following, thus bringing the First Macedonian War to a close.

At this time the guardians of the young king of Egypt, IV., surnamed Epiphanes, had placed him under the protection of the Roman senate, fearing that it would be impossible to withstand the designs of Antiochus the king of Syria, on that country, without entering into alliance with some foreign power. Philip of Macedon had, however, been said, formed a league with this monarch, and, as the Second Punic War, had made persistent attacks on Attalus, king of Pergamus, with whom the Romans were still on friendly terms. It was therefore, in 201 B.C., to send an embassy to Philip, to request that he should abstain from war against Southern Italy and the Rhodians, restore the towns he had taken from them, and submit his quarrel with Attalus to arbitration. Philip declined to accede to the requests of the Romans, and the Second Macedonian War was forthwith commenced.

The war was carried on with vigour. The Romans took the city of Chalcis in the first year, and Philip laid waste the country. Antiochus began to assist Philip by marching into Asia Minor, but retired at the bidding of the Romans, who sent an army into Thessaly and carried everything before them. Philip sought for peace, but was compelled to continue the war as he was not prepared to surrender as much as his

adversaries required. On this Titus Quinctius Flaminius, who was in command of the Roman fleet and army, prepared in the following year to push on the war with vigour.

197 Philip also made the best preparations he could to  
B.C. encounter his foes, and the hostile forces met at

Cynocephalæ, near Scotussa, in Thessaly. The victory, which was for some time doubtful, was won at last, after a hard fight, by the Romans, and Philip was compelled to accept the terms that he had previously refused. He was left in possession of Macedonia and his hereditary dominions, but his garrisons were withdrawn from Demetrias, Chalcis, and Corinth in Greece, whose liberty was ostentatiously proclaimed by the Romans, and his supremacy in that country was totally destroyed. He was no longer permitted to make war without permission of Rome; his army and fleet were reduced to a force merely sufficient for the protection of his coasts, and he had to pay a thousand talents for the expenses of the war. That was the Second Macedonian War brought to a close.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of First Macedonian War.....	B.C. 214	Commencement of Second Macedonian War.....	B.C. 200
Close of First Macedonian War .....	" 205	Battle of Cynocephalæ— Romans Victorious .....	" 197
Roman Protectorate of Egypt .....	" 203	Close of the Second Mace- donian War .....	" 197

#### 2. THE SYRIAN WAR.

The victory of Cynocephalæ was followed, as it has been said, by the restoration of liberty to Greece, that is to say, the Greeks resumed the management of their internal affairs, instead of acting under the control of the king of Macedon, as heretofore. The possessions of Philip in the Peloponnesus were added to the number of states which were comprised in the Achæan league; while Phocis and Locris were permitted to enter the Ætolian confederacy.

Just at this time Antiochus the Great, king of Syria, had been pushing his conquests along the coast of Asia Minor,

197 and had taken Abydos and even entered Thrace.

B.C. The Romans contented themselves with merely remonstrating against his further advance, to which the king paid no attention, but received Hannibal, the sworn enemy of Rome, at his court at Ephesus, and commenced an



work of intrigue among the Greek states as soon as  
 as, to whom the re-organisation of Greece had been  
 l, had finished his work and returned to Rome.  
 lians, to whom the Romans had given offence by  
 g them Acarnania and Thessaly after the battle of  
 alæ, readily entered into alliance with him; out-  
 ok place in various parts of Greece; Rome hastened  
 ssistance of the states that formed the Achæan  
 nd Antiochus landed with an army on the **192**  
 Thessaly. Philip of Macedon, at this junc- **B.C.**  
 tained faithful to the treaty that he had  
 th the Romans. Nothing much was done in the  
 r of the war beyond the capture of Thermopylæ,  
 and some towns in Thessaly, by Antiochus.

Following year the Romans recaptured the towns  
 been taken by Antiochus. His army was **191**  
 by Marcus Porcius Cato at Thermopylæ, **B.C.**  
 himself was obliged to escape with a hand-  
 n, and return to Ephesus. This reverse was followed  
 defeat of his fleet off Cyssus, on the coast of Ionia;  
 r permitting the Ætolians to make their peace by  
 ion, the Romans prepared to carry the war into Asia.  
 's fleet, which had been placed under the command  
 ibal, was defeated by the combined Roman and  
 fleets at the mouth of the Eurymedon, and again off  
 ontory of Myonnesus.

Next year saw a Roman army cross the Hellespont  
 : Asia Minor, under the command of Lucius **190**  
 d his brother Publius Scipio Africanus. It **B.C.**  
 by the troops of Antiochus, near Magnesia,  
 ot far from Smyrna. A desperate engagement fol-  
 n which Antiochus was defeated, and lost fifty  
 . men, while the Roman loss in cavalry and infantry  
 amount to three hundred and fifty.

reduced to the last extremity, Antiochus was now  
 procure peace of the Romans upon their own terms.  
 uired him to pay fifteen thousand talents; quit all  
 ssions in Europe, and all in Asia as far as Mount  
 nd the Halys; give twenty hostages, and deliver up  
 l. In consequence of his success, Lucius Scipio  
 the surname of Asiaticus. Hannibal fled for pro-  
 , the court of Prusias, king of Bithynia, whither the

Romans sent *Æmilius*, one of their celebrated generals, to demand him. Implacably pursued from one country to another, and finding all methods of safety cut off, this brave but unfortunate man poisoned himself in 183 B.C.

Peace with *Antiochus* was not finally concluded until 188 B.C., and in the following year the king fell in an attack made on him by the people of *Elymais*, at the head of the Persian Gulf, for robbing the temple of one of their gods of its treasures.

In the third year after the conclusion of the war with *Antiochus*, *Scipio Africanus* was accused, by *Marcus Porcius Cato*, of defrauding the treasury of the plunder taken in war, and of too intimate a correspondence with that king. A day being appointed him to answer for his conduct, *Scipio* obeyed the summons; but, instead of attempting a defence, reminded the people that on that very day he had conquered *Hannibal* and gained the battle of *Zama*. Though the tribunes were foiled in this attempt, they proceeded to accuse him in the senate; *Scipio*, therefore, withdrew to *Linturnum*, a town on the coast of *Campania*, where he died (183 B.C.), and at his death ordered the following epitaph to be engraven on his tomb: "Ungrateful country! thou shalt not possess my bones."

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Comencement of the Syrian War .....	B.C. 192	Battle of <i>Magnesia</i> .....	B.C. 190
Defeat of <i>Antiochus</i> at <i>Thermopylæ</i> .....	" 191	Conclusion of peace with <i>Antiochus</i> , and end of Syrian War ..	" 188
Battle of the <i>Eurymedon</i> , Romans victorious ..	" 191	Death of <i>Antiochus</i> .....	" 187
		Death of <i>Scipio</i> .....	" 183

### 3. THE THIRD MACEDONIAN WAR AND CONQUEST OF GREECE.

After the conclusion of the war with *Antiochus* the Great the complications in the affairs of Greece began to increase. Thrace had been bestowed by the Romans on *Attalus*, king of *Pergamus*, a proceeding which gave bitter offence to *Philip* of *Macedon*. *Thessaly*, or a great part of it, had been given to *Philip* for his observance of the alliance with Rome during the war, and this had offended the *Thessalians* themselves and the people of the various states of Greece. The ill-feeling which *Philip* had begun to entertain towards Rome was embittered by the decision of the senate against him in some

dispute between him on the one side and the Thessalians and Greeks on the other; but before he could be tempted out into open hostilities once more he died (179 B.C.), and succeeded on the throne of Macedon by his son

Perseus. The prince spent the first few years of his reign in making preparations for an ultimate rupture with Rome. He made treaties on all sides, with the Greek states, with Rhodes, and with the important cities of Asia Minor and Thrace, whose inhabitants felt no love towards Rome: but everything was done by him so secretly and quietly, that it was not until several years after his accession that the Romans became thoroughly aware of his aims and intentions, and took measures to enter on the Third Macedonian

172

B.C.

war. As usual there was no fixity of purpose among the Greeks and Asiatics; many of his supporters fell away from Perseus after war was declared, and joined the Romans. The Macedonian king found himself left to cope with his subjects with no auxiliaries except some troops supplied by the tribes settled along the Lower Danube.

After the declaration of war the Roman senate sent a commission into Thessaly, under Publius Licinius Crassus, who was defeated by Perseus near Larissa.

171

B.C.

The struggle was continued during this and the two following years, without marked advantage on either side; it was not until the arrival of Lucius Æmilius Paulus at the outbreak of war that the Romans were able to make any advance. This general, who had seen much service in the Second Punic War and in Northern Italy, brought Perseus to bay at last, and utterly defeated him in a great and bloody battle. Perseus surrendered himself to his father, and died, not long after, in retirement.

168

B.C.

Macedonia was divided into tributary states or federations (Ætolia and Illyria also), paying an annual tax to Rome, and in 146 B.C. Macedonia was formed into a Roman province.

Though the Greek states had lent no open aid to Perseus in his attempt to shake off the Roman yoke, there was a conspiracy in Greece that would have taken the opportunity to break into open revolt against Rome if his efforts had been crowned with success. The leading men in this conspiracy were denounced to the senate by the faction that desired to promote Roman supremacy in Greece, and about

1,000 of them were removed to Rome, and detained in Italy for

**167** seventeen years until 150 B.C. Quarrels between  
the states of Greece were of constant occurrence : a

**B.C.** decision of the commissioners sent into Greece by  
the senate (147 B.C.) that the Achæan league should give up  
Sparta and Corinth provoked great dissatisfaction : the party  
that wished for war with Rome broke into open demonstra-  
tions of hostility, and a Roman army under Lucius Mummius  
was sent to reduce Corinth and bring the Greeks to obedience.  
Diseus, the commander of the troops of the league, was totally  
defeated, and Corinth, evacuated by the troops placed in it to  
defend it and the inhabitants, was taken and sacked. The

**146** fate of Greece was now sealed : the Peloponnesus  
and Northern Greece, as far as the southern bound-

**B.C.** aries of Thessaly and Epirus, were amalgamated to  
form the Roman province of Achaia, while Thessaly and  
Epirus were comprised in the province of Macedonia, which,  
as it has been said, was also founded in the year that wit-  
nessed the final triumph of Rome in the Greek Peninsula.

#### CHRONOLOGIC ALSUMMARY.

Death of Philip of Mac-		Insurrection in Greece	
don .....	B.C. 179	against the Romans ...	B.C. 147
Revolt of Persæus, and		Surrender and Sack of	
Commencement of the		Corinth.....	" 147
Third Macedonian War	" 172	Subjugation of Greece and	
Battle of Pydna; surren-		formation of the Roman	
der of Persæus, and close		Provinces of Macedonia	
of the war.....	" 168	and Achaia .....	" 146

### CHAPTER IX.

#### THE SUBJUGATION OF CARTHAGE.

150 B.C. to 146 B.C.

##### 1. THE THIRD PUNIC WAR—DEFENCE OF CARTHAGE—ITS DESTRUCTION.

THROUGH the years that followed the close of the Second Punic War, Carthage had observed with unwavering loyalty the terms of the treaty then made with Rome, and had accepted without murmur many adverse decisions of the Roman senate in disputes that had occurred relative to the possession of terri-

tory which had been seized by Masinissa, the king of Numidia. This monarch, relying on the support of Rome, which was always freely accorded to him, had carried his exactions so far as to assert his right to Byzacina and other seaports on the gulf called Syrtis Minor, in which proceeding he was supported by the senate, and even to occupy a tract of land called the "Great Plain," on the upper course of the Bagradas. The Carthaginians, smarting under the wrong, appealed once more to Rome, and the senate sent over commissioners to settle the dispute. Before opening the business of the commission, the commissioners required both parties to bind themselves to accept their decision. This the Carthaginians refused to do; the matter, therefore, remained unsettled. A feeling of hostility towards Rome was revived in Carthage, while the Romans grew suspicious of the intentions of the Carthaginians. The good understanding that had existed between the former rivals was gradually destroyed, and a party against Carthage was formed in the Roman senate, at the head of which was Marcus Porcius Cato, one of the commissioners who had been sent to Carthage to settle the dispute, and who, until war was finally decided on some years after, never lost the chance of urging the necessity of destroying Carthage whenever he had an opportunity of opening his mouth in the senate.

161

B.C.

At last the Carthaginians, weary of the exactions of Masinissa, and seeing that they could not hope for fair treatment from Rome, began to take up arms against the Numidians. On this orders were sent from Rome bidding them to desist from hostile preparations. The Carthaginians refused, and Masinissa led an army against the city (150 B.C.) and totally defeated and cut to pieces the Carthaginian troops, which were commanded by a general who bore the historic name of Hasdrubal. Fearful of what might follow, they immediately sent an embassy to Rome to make excuses, but these were declared insufficient, and a second embassy, which was immediately sent over, found the Roman fleet on the point of setting sail for Africa.

154

B.C.

149

B.C.

The Carthaginians, affrighted at the Roman armaments, against which they were totally unprepared, humbly offered to make any concessions. The Romans demanded three hundred hostages within thirty days, and an implicit obedience

to their future commands. They then required all their arms ; and finding this demand also complied with, they ordered the Carthaginians to leave their city, which was to be levelled with the ground, at the same time allowing them to build another not less than ten miles from the sea. This severe and despotic injunction drove the unfortunate people to despair, and they resolved to fight to the last for their seat of empire, and the habitations of their ancestors.

Hasdrubal, who had been lately condemned for opposing the Romans, was liberated from prison, and placed at the head of the army. Such were their preparations, that when the consuls came before the city, which they expected to find an easy conquest, they met with repulses which quite dispirited their forces, and shook their resolution. Several engagements were fought before the walls, generally to the disadvantage of the assailants ; and the Romans would have discontinued the siege had not Publius Scipio *Æmilianns*, the adopted son of *Africanus*, used as much skill to save his forces after a defeat, as to inspire them with hopes of ultimate victory. After gaining over *Himilco Phaneas*, the master of the Carthaginian horse, he once more set to work to secure the co-operation of the Numidians, and having performed in a satisfactory manner the charge which *Masinissa* (who died just after the commencement of the siege) had left to him, of dividing his territories between his sons, *Micipsa*, *Gulussa*, and *Mastanabal*, he brought over *Gulussa* and his cavalry to the support of his countrymen. During 148 B.C. nothing was done, in spite of all Scipio's efforts, but in the following year he was made consul, though under the age at which he could legally hold this office, and placed in supreme command over the Roman fleet and legions in Africa. His first act was to

147  
B.C. take *Megara*, a suburb of the city, in which *Hasdrubal* put all the Roman prisoners within the city to a cruel death, and several Carthaginian senators

who remonstrated with him on the injustice and iniquity of such an act. A blockade, which was protracted over several months, then ensued, and the fortified camp of the Carthaginian army at *Nepheris* was carried by assault. Another

146  
B.C. dreary winter passed, the besieged suffering terribly from famine and sickness ; but when spring came, and the swallows were preparing for their flight

northwards, Scipio made a last desperate effort and carried

the city by assault. Hasdrubal retreated with his wife, family, and a body of Roman deserters into the citadel, which some of the garrison, resolving to perish rather than surrender, set on fire. On this Hasdrubal ran out and submitted to Scipio, leaving his wife and children and his deserted followers to perish in the flames. The conflagration was extended by the merciless conquerors over the whole of this noble city, which was twenty-four miles in compass, and which the senate ordered to be levelled with the ground. All the cities which had assisted Carthage were devoted to the same fate, and the lands belonging to them were given to the friends of the Romans. The territory which was held by Carthage at the beginning of the war was formed into a Roman province, to which the name of Africa was given.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Quarrels between Masinissa and the Carthaginians .....	B.C. 161	Commencement of the Third Punic War by Rome .....	B.C. 149
Carthage takes up arms against Masinissa .....	„ 154	Capture and Destruction of Carthage .....	„ 146

## CHAPTER X.

## THE CONSOLIDATION OF THE ROMAN POWER IN SOUTHERN EUROPE, &amp;c.

200 B.C. to 129 B.C.

## 1. THE ROMANS IN CISALPINE GAUL.

It is now necessary, after the consideration of the great wars which resulted in the conquest of Illyricum, Macedonia, Greece, and Carthage, and the partial subjugation, though not occupation, of Asia Minor, to look back and trace the steps that were taken by Rome to consolidate her power in her northern provinces and on her northern frontier as well as in Spain. The first thing to be done was to punish the tribes of Cisalpine Gaul for the assistance and support given first to Hannibal, and then to his brother Hasdrubal and Mago in their descents on Italy through the passes of the Alps, and by landing, as Mago did, on the coast of Liguria. In 200 B.C., the Gauls had gained some successes against the Roman garrisons in Placentia and Cremona. For these and

the acts of hostility against Rome previously mentioned, it was necessary to bring them into complete subjection, which was done in a long and lingering war of ten years, which completely broke the spirit of the Insubrians, Cenomani, Boii, and other tribes of Cisalpine Gaul, south of the Po. The Roman colonies of Bononia, Mutina, and Parma, of which the first and second are now known as Bologna and Modena, were established, and the Flaminian way continued through the country from Ariminum or Rimini to Mediolanum, now Milan. This extension of the Flaminian way, however, was called the Æmilian way, being constructed by the censor Marcus Æmilius Lepidus. It was made about 179 B.C.

After the pacification of the tribes of Cisalpine Gaul, south of the Po, it was resolved to subjugate the Ligurians, a race of hardy mountaineers and sailors who inhabited the country now called Genoa. The contest, which was commenced by Marcus Æmilius Lepidus during his consulate, was prolonged for more than 170 years; and although individual tribes were reduced and severely punished at frequent intervals, and a military road was made through the country in 109 B.C., the subjection of the country even then was only nominal, and its actual conquest was not completed until after the establishment of the Empire under Augustus. The passage into Gaul beyond the Alps was one, therefore, that was always attended with more or less difficulty and danger.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Attack of tribes of Cisalpine Gaul on Roman garrisons in Placentia, &c. ....	B.C. 200	Construction of Æmilian road .....	B.C. 179
Defeat of Insubrians and Boii .....	„ 196	Commencement of the subjugation of the Ligurians .....	„ 187
Founding of Bononia, &c. ..	„ 190	Road made through Liguria .....	„ 109

#### 2. THE ROMANS IN SPAIN—NUMANTIA.

Although Spain nominally belonged to Rome after 205 B.C., and was divided in that year by the Senate into two provinces, known as Hispania Citerior and Hispania Ulterior,\*

\* Hispania Citerior, or Hither Spain, was divided from Hispania Ulterior, or Further Spain, by the course of the river Durius, or Douro, as far as a small town called Vicus Aquarius, and then by an irregular



it was not until after the capture and destruction of Numantia in 133 B.C. that the complete subjugation of the country was effected. A constant and harassing war was kept up against the Roman settlers on the coast by the Celtiberians, and at last it was found necessary to restore respect for the Roman name, and strike terror into the Spanish tribes by sending a large army into the country under Marcus Porcius Cato, who, partly by diplomacy and partly by hard fighting in the field, reduced the tribes to obedience, and for a while restored the ascendancy of Rome.

195  
B.C.

Matters went on with tolerable smoothness for about fifteen years. There were outbreaks against the authority of Rome on the part of individual tribes, it is true, and the Celtiberians, who occupied the centre of the eastern side of the peninsula, rose more than once in insurrection, but there was no united effort throughout the country to shake off the yoke of the foreign power that had established so firm a footing on its eastern coasts. The Celtiberians made trial of the fortune of war once more in 181 B.C., but they were subdued by Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, who by his prudent administration did much to establish the Roman power permanently in the parts now known as Catalonia, Valencia, Aragon, and Castile, and induced the native tribes to enter into an agreement to build no more fortified towns.

179  
B.C.

The principal wars from 179 B.C. to 155 B.C. were occasioned by revolts against Roman authority in Sardinia and Istria (177 B.C.); in Corsica (163 B.C.); and in Dalmatia (156 B.C.) There was nothing of importance in connection with any of these attempts of conquered nations to regain the independence that they had previously enjoyed.

During the years that followed the pacification of Spain by Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, the Romans pushed their conquests in all parts of the Spanish peninsula southward and westward, until their pro-

154  
B.C.

line drawn from this point in a south-east direction, till it struck the coast some miles south of New Carthage, at the mouth of the modern river Almanzora. Hispania Ulterior was afterwards divided into the provinces of Lusitania and Bætica, which were separated by the river Anas, now the Guadiana. Lusitania comprised the greater part of what is now called Portugal and part of Estremadura, while Bætica included the remaining portion of Estremadura and Andalusia.

gress was seriously checked by a rising of the tribes in the north-western part of Hispania Ulterior, who carried all before them and threatened New Carthage with an assault. A Roman army under Lucius Mummius, the prætor of Hispania Citerior, was defeated, the Celtiberians in Central Spain flew

153 to arms, and the Celtiberian war, as it was called,  
B.C. commenced. An army was immediately sent into

Spain under the consul Quintus Fulvius Nobilior, whose first step was to put a stop to the building of Segeda, a small town that was being built by some of the Celtiberians in violation of the terms of the treaty made with Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus. Fulvius destroyed the town, but was defeated shortly after by the Arevaci, who took up arms to avenge the destruction of Segeda, and established themselves in Numantia, a city which was in a position so well defended by nature that it required little of the art of the military engineer to render it, in those times, impregnable. Fulvius suffered a second defeat before Numantia, and lost much of his stores and baggage as well as reputation, but Mummius gained some trifling successes in the South.

In the following year Marcus Claudius Marcellus, who was then one of the consuls, was sent into Spain, and he

152 was successful in subduing the Arevaci and making  
B.C. a treaty with them, by which they were permitted

to retain their independence on condition of paying tribute annually to Rome. A policy of conciliation might now have done much to procure the acquiescence of the tribes in Roman supremacy, but the successor of Marcellus, Lucius

151 Licinius Lucullus thought fit to march against the  
B.C. Vaccaei, a tribe occupying territory to the north-west

of the Arevaci, and laid waste their country and cities with fire and sword. At this time Scipio Æmilianus was serving under Lucullus as a military tribune. While this was going on in the north, Servius Sulpicius Galba, the new prætor, had met with a serious check in Hispania Ulterior, and Lucullus

150 marched to his assistance. Galba had been operat-  
B.C. ing against the Lusitani, a tribe situated to the

south of the Douro, and occupying the country along the west coast of the peninsula, and it was mainly against this people that the joint efforts of the consul and prætor were now directed. In the course of the conflict then in progress, Galba persuaded about 7,000 Lusitanians whom

he had defeated, to consent to surrender and submit to be removed to another part of Spain ; but when they assembled in accordance with the terms of the convention, and laid down their arms, he ordered his soldiery to fall on them and put them to death. Galba escaped punishment for his treachery by purchasing acquittal from his judges when summoned to take his trial on his return to Rome ; but his cruel act was subsequently avenged on Rome and her legions in Spain by a shepherd named Viriathus, who escaped from the massacre, and summoned his countrymen to arms, offering himself as their general to lead them against their common foe. From 149 B.C. to 141 B.C., when he forced a Roman army to capitulate, he was successful in almost every encounter with the Roman troops, and was elected their sovereign by his countrymen. The Roman Senate acknowledged him as king of Lusitania, and then sought to accomplish by treachery that which they were unable to carry out by fair fighting in the field. When Viriathus was little expecting it, their consul Quintus Servilius Capió suddenly attacked him, and then bribed one of his envoys, whom he had sent to ask for peace, to take his life. This was done, and Rome had no more to fear from the patriotism and courage of the murdered Viriathus. 140  
B.C.

The successes of the Lusitanian shepherd in the south-west had encouraged the Celtiberians in the centre of the continent to resume the struggle for liberty, and the Arevaci and other tribes commenced a war against Rome, which has since been known in history as the Numantine War. It commenced in 143 B.C. and lasted for ten years. Two years' fighting elapsed before the tribes were reduced to sue for peace, and tranquillity might have been restored had the Romans been contented to follow up their successes with moderate measures. The garrison of Numantia, the last stronghold that still held out, was ready to surrender, but resolved to continue the contest to the bitter end, on learning that the enemy would not come to terms unless they first gave up their arms. Consul after consul suffered defeat at the hands of the gallant defenders of the all but conquered city, who had managed to pluck victory out of despair, and at last the Numantines surrounded the army under Caius Hostilius Mancinus and obliged it to capitulate. Tiberius Gracchus, a military 143  
B.C.

tribune in the army, of whom we shall hear more presently, induced the Numantines to consent to a treaty favourable enough to the Romans, but the convention was repudiated by the Senate, and hostilities were continued to the detriment of

**134** Rome and her interests in Spain. At last, Scipio Africanus, who had effected the subjugation of

B.C.

Carthage, went into Spain as consul, and having restored discipline to the disorganised troops that he found in that country, once more laid siege to Numantia. The natural defences of the city rendered it impossible to carry it by assault, so there was no other course open to Scipio but to surround it with a wall so as to prevent communication with the surrounding country, and to starve the garrison into submission. For fifteen months its defenders continued their hopeless resistance, and it was not until hunger compelled them to eat the bodies of the dead that the survivors unwillingly opened their gates to the conqueror. Numantia, like Carthage, was then levelled with the ground, and resistance to the Roman authority in Spain, as long as it remained a Roman province, was completely put down.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Subjection of Spanish Tribes by Cato .....	B.C. 195	Revolt of Lusitanians under Viriathus .....	B.C. 149
Celtiberians conquered by Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus .....	" 179	Assassination of Viriathus ..	140
Commencement of Celtiberian War .....	" 154	Commencement of Numantine War .....	" 143
Subjection of Arevaci by Marcellus .....	" 152	Capitulation of Mancinus and his army .....	" 138
Galba's treacherous Massacre of Lusitanians ...	" 150	Siege of Numantia by Scipio Africanus .....	" 134
		Surrender of Numantia: end of Numantine War ..	" 133

#### 2. THE SERVILE WAR IN SICILY—THE BEQUEST OF ATTALUS—THE PROVINCE OF ASIA.

It had been the custom of the Romans from the earliest period to sell into slavery all prisoners taken in war and at the surrender of conquered cities. These unhappy men and women were generally bought up by wealthy Romans, and sent to work on the lands which they held in the colonies established in various parts of Italy and Rome's new dependencies, such as Sicily, Sardinia, Spain, and Carthage.

The conquered lands it may be now as well to point out were not divided in due proportions, as they should have been, among the Roman people at large, but the nobles and rich men of all classes managed by the influence of their money to get possession of them and thus add largely to their wealth by the employment of slave labour. Sicily had received several thousands of these slaves, and so cruel was the treatment that they received from their owners, or the overseers that their owners set over them, that they resolved to break into insurrection and seize the island for themselves.

Desperate men soon find a leader and an opportunity. The first appeared in the person of a Syrian Greek named Eunoüs, who had gained influence over his fellow slaves by declaring that it was foretold to him when a child that he should one day be a king; and the second was brought about by the frightful cruelties that a slave owner of Enna, named Damophilus, inflicted on those who were unfortunate enough to have become his property. It is not to be supposed that the slaves themselves were good and amiable sufferers: on the contrary they were for the most part savage ruffians, brutalised by continued ill-treatment, who suddenly broke out into revolt, and committed excesses such as only wronged men panting for revenge will perpetrate. At last, through the infliction of torture more cruel than usual on a slave of Damophilus, the smouldering fires kindled by wanton persecution burst into a fierce and furious blaze: the slaves ran to arms and took possession of Enna, placing at their head the crafty Eunoüs who assumed the name of Antiochus and the style of king of Sicily.

In a few days the number of rebels under arms had reached 20,000 and the defeat of four bodies of Roman troops in succession soon increased this number tenfold and brought all the slaves in the island under the standard of the slave-king. For a year they had it all their own way in Sicily and it was not until Messana was taken by Lucius Calpurnius Piso that the tide of revolt was stemmed. Many thousands of the rebel slaves fell in the assault on the town and the prisoners taken were crucified on a long line of crosses erected along the beach, where their bodies hung to rot and blacken in the sun. In the year after the only strongholds that were still occupied by the slaves

were Tauromenium, now Taormina, and Kana, both on the eastern side of the island and these were given up  
 132 to the consul Publius Rupilius by traitors in the  
 B.C. garrisons. The leaders of the insurrection were punished by death with the exception of Eunotia who died in prison.

The year which witnessed the end of the Servile War in Sicily was rendered yet more notable by the death of Attalus III., sixth and last king of Pergamus, who left his kingdom and his immense wealth and treasures to the Romans. The right of Rome to the inheritance was disputed by Aristonicus, an illegitimate son of Eumenes II., the fourth king of Pergamus, and Publius Licinius Crassus was sent into

131 Asia to put an end to his pretensions with the sword. Instead of pressing the war with vigour

B.C. Crassus did little else than accumulate the treasures of Attalus for transfer to Rome and falling into an ambuscade near Leuca while marching to the coast to return to Rome,

129 he was defeated and killed. It was two years before the Romans got Aristonicus into their power,  
 B.C. but he was then taken prisoner by Manius

Aquillius and sent to Rome where he was put to death. The kingdom of Pergamus—with the exception of the Thracian Chersonese, which was added to Macedonia—and other parts of Asia Minor were formed into the new Roman province of Asia.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Beginning of Servile War in Sicily .....	B.C. 134	Pergamus.....	B.C. 133
The Servile War brought to an end .....	" 132	Defeat and death of Crassus.....	" 131
Death of Attalus III., king of Pergamus, who leaves his kingdom to Rome...	" 133	Capture of Aristonicus by Manius Aquillius, and formation of Pergamus, &c., into province of Asia .....	" 129
Aristonicus lays claim to			

## CHAPTER XI.

## GRACCHAN DISPUTES AND CIVIL CONTENTION IN ROME.

133 B.C. TO 121 B.C.

## 1. THE DOINGS OF THE GRACCHI.

had now intoxicated the Romans to such a degree, they already considered the world as their own, and the other nations not as equals, but as vassals to their or aggrandisement. The Roman power and glory reached their acme; and though their conquests time to come more numerous, and their dominions extensive, their extension was rather an increase of than of strength. They daily degenerated from ancient modesty, temperance, and simplicity of life.

Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, two young nobles of the Gracchan family, the sons of Tiberius Gracchus who had the pacification of Spain in 179 B.C. and Cornelia, daughter of Scipio Africanus the Elder, were the first to detect this strange corruption among the great, and resolved to check it by renewing the Licinian law, which forbade any man to possess more than five hundred jugera or acres\* of land, and decreed that the overplus should be the property of the state. Tiberius Gracchus, the elder, was distinguished both for the advantages of fortune and the qualities of his mind. He like his father had distinguished himself in Spain during the Punic War and had served, when only eighteen, as military tribune at the Siege of Carthage. Anxious to preserve the Licinian law from being wrested to the use of the great, as it had hitherto been, as 134  
he was chosen tribune, he caused it to be B.C.  
that no citizen should hold more than 500

of public land for himself, with 500 more for his family if he had sons still under age: and that all land not reclaimed by the state should be distributed to the poor who had nothing, in allotments of 30 jugera each. Commissioners, called triumvirs, were also appointed to

about eight jugera were equivalent to five English acres.

examined and determined the quantity of land occupied by every individual and to determine the amount of compensation to be given for buildings and improvements made in estates or parts of estates that would have to be surrendered to the state. The committee appointed to carry out the law were Tiberius and Caius Gracchus, who was then serving under Scipio, and Appius Claudius, the father-in-law of the former.

The wealthy Romans objected at the success of Tiberius Gracchus in carrying his measure into law, and endeavoured to persuade the people that he aimed only at disturbing the government. But Tiberius, conscious that he was only making things worse for the Roman people collectively, determined to push his plan of distribution of state lands to the utmost and when Attalus, king of Pergamum, left the Romans his beque, he proposed that the money so devised should be divided among the poor, as well as the lands, which because of the late law of partition. At the expiration of his year of office measures were taken to re-elect Tiberius as tribune of the people; a tumult ensued, a rush was made at the popular candidate by the clients of the great, and Tiberius, surrounded by his friends, put his hand to his head, to intimate that his life was in danger. The partisans of the senate, perverting his meaning, insinuated that he wanted a disblem. This false report was speedily carried to the senate, and the senators, who were then sitting, headed by Scipio Nasica, who was then chief pontiff, rushed to the scene of action. Arming themselves with bludgeons and any

133

B.C.

kind of weapon that was at hand, they threw themselves on Tiberius and his supporters. Tiberius himself was struck dead with a piece of a bench, and three hundred of his partisans were killed in the tumult.

Caius Gracchus, who was brave and spirited, and much more rash in action than his brother Tiberius who had been slain by the senators, returned to Rome after the siege of Numantia had been brought to a close, and entered eagerly on his task as one of the triumvirs entrusted with the redistribution of the state lands. In this employment he showed himself extremely assiduous, and being impressed with the spirit of his brother's rectitude, endeavoured to regulate each man's possessions according to law, with inflexible justice. Unfortunately however, he and his



were led to interfere with lands belonging to the  
ies of the Republic and which had been  
o them by treaty. Those who thought **130**  
s aggrieved had recourse for redress to **B.C.**  
icanus, who obtained Caius Sempronius Tuditanus,  
il, to be appointed by the senate to settle all  
rights of ownership instead of the triumvirs, thus  
power that had been given to them out of their  
Tuditanus, however, was called off to quell an  
on in Illyria, and thus left the claims and the  
the people undecided. An universal clamour was  
inst Scipio, by whose artifice the procrastination  
a. He was accused of meditating an attempt to  
agrarian law of Tiberius Gracchus by force, and the  
oured loudly for his death. At the time when the  
ry against him had reached its highest pitch he  
d, one morning, dead in his bed and it was  
that he had been assassinated at the instigation of  
irius Carbo, one of the triumvirs. The death of  
man produced much suspicion against the popular  
l particularly against Gracchus, who scorned to  
clear himself from a crime of which there were no  
inst him. In 126 B.C. Caius Gracchus was sent as  
o Sardinia and remained there until 124 B.C. On  
he offered himself for election as one of the  
f the people, and being elected, notwith-  
the warmest opposition of the senate, he **123**  
re the people Popilius, one of the most **B.C.**

of his brother's enemies, for his persecution of the  
of Tiberius after his death, but Popilius, rather  
l the event of a trial, chose to go into voluntary  
which he remained until after the death of Caius

He procured an edict, granting the freedom of  
the inhabitants of Latium, and, soon after, to all  
on the south side of the Alps. He caused the late  
s of the senate to be scrutinised; and the whole of  
being convicted of bribery, extortion, and the sale  
a law was enacted, transferring the power of  
rrupt magistrates from a jury composed of senators  
e composed of senators and knights conjointly in  
rtion of one of the former to two of the latter,  
acted a great alteration in the constitution. He



er, not satisfied with the protection of all the senate, its, and a numerous retinue of slaves, the consul was aided by a body of Cretan archers, who were mercenaries in the Roman service. Thus guarded, and conscious of the superiority of his force, he insulted Gracchus when he met him; but the latter avoided all recrimination, apprised of the consul's design, would wear no kind of arms for his defence. However, his friend Fulvius Flaccus, tribune, was not so remiss; but being resolved to be true to party, he brought up several countrymen to make a pretence of their seeking employment, at a time when the consul was about to propose a measure for the repeal of the order for the establishment of a colony in Africa.

When the time for determining the controversy was arrived, the lictors having called the party of Gracchus "factious," he was instantly killed. His murder caused a great commotion in the assembly; and the senate took every method to suppress the city—by investing the consul with dictatorial powers, and ordering the dead lictor's corpse to be carried through the city, and ordering the whole body of nobles and knights to be armed the next day in arms with their slaves and domestics, to protect the Republic. On hearing this, Fulvius Flaccus took up a position on Mount Aventine, surrounded by a number of their followers and crowds of the people. The consuls proclaimed, "that whoever would take the head of Gracchus, or that of Flaccus his friend, should receive its weight in gold." It was to no purpose that Gracchus repeatedly sent the youngest son of Flaccus, yet but eighteen years old, with proposals for an accommodation. The senate and the consuls, sensible of their folly, rejected all his offers, and resolved to punish him with death. Then the consul, at the head of the army, and their dependants, advanced against the mob on Mount Aventine, and carried it with a rush. Gracchus fled to a grove beyond the Tiber, which had long been sacred to the Furies; and, finding himself surrounded on all sides, he prevailed on his slave to kill him.

Twenty years after his brother Tiberius; whose character it appears that all justice was on their side, and all injury on that of the senate. In fact, this body, venerable, was now only distinguished from the rest

of the people by their superior industry: and they ruled the Commonwealth by the weight of that authority which is gained from riches and a number of necessary dependents. In short, the empire had fallen under the domination of a hateful oligarchy.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Agrippa's law of <i>Terrenus</i>		Caesar's triumph in <i>Sardinia</i>	
<i>Gracchus</i> passed .....	B.C. 133	as <i>questor</i> .....	B.C. 133-4
Murder of <i>Terrenus</i> <i>Gracchus</i>	.....	<i>Caio</i> <i>Gracchus</i> elected <i>tribune</i>	.....
.....	.....	of the people .....	.....
Distribution of <i>Roman</i> lands	.....	Elected <i>tribune</i> for the	.....
by <i>Caio</i> <i>Gracchus</i> and	.....	second time .....	.....
his colleagues stopped	.....	Decline of his popularity,	.....
by <i>Scipio</i> <i>Africanus</i> .....	B.C. 130	and his death brought	.....
Supposed murder of <i>Scipio</i>	.....	about by the action of	.....
<i>Africanus</i> .....	.....	the Senate .....	B.C. 121

#### 2. THE ROMANS IN TRANSALPINE GAUL.

During the disturbances that had been created in Rome by the attempts of the *Gracchi* to procure a fairer distribution of the lands belonging to the state among the citizens than had hitherto been accorded, and a greater measure of political freedom for the masses of the people, the Romans had not been idle in adding territories beyond the limits of the peninsula to their dominions. The arms of the Republic had been carried beyond the Alps into the country that was then known

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B.C.

as *Transalpine Gaul*. *Marcus Fulvius Flaccus*, the friend and earnest supporter of *Caio* *Gracchus*, had, when consul, carried on a war with the *Salluvii*, a people who dwelt between the *Rhone* and the *Alps*, and whose territory he was enabled to reach with ease through *Massilia* and the surrounding country, now *Marseilles*, an old Greek colony, which had long been in the strictest alliance with Rome. After a war which lasted three years, the *Salluvii* were brought into subjection, and the Roman colony of *Aqua Sextia*, now *Aix*, was established in their territory.

122

B.C.

The *Allobroges*, and tribes to the north of the *Salluvii*, extending as far as the *Lake of Geneva*, then called *Lake Lemanus*, through whose country *Hannibal* had passed in his descent on Italy from the north, were next invaded by the Romans, and the work of conquest was carried on until the whole country on either side of the *Rhone*,

in the Lake of Geneva to the Pyrenees, was subdued, and added into a Roman province, which bore the name Gallia Provincia. The acquisition of this new territory was followed, in 118 B.C., by the establishment of the colony of Narbo Martius, now Narbonne, on the east coast of the Gulf of Lyons, which soon became a large prosperous Roman settlement, and the capital of the province.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

commencement of war in Cisalpine Gaul .....	B.C. 125	called Gallia Provincia (Provence).....	B.C. 121
establishment of Aquæ Sextie .....	" 122	Settlement of Narbo Martius, which is now called Narbonne .....	" 118

## CHAPTER XII.

## FROM THE DEATH OF CAIUS GRACCHUS TO THE END OF THE SECOND SERVILE WAR IN SICILY.

121 B.C. to 100 B.C.

## 1. THE WAR WITH JUGURTHA.

After the death of Gracchus, the first act of the aristocratic party was to procure the repeal of the law which prevented acquisition of large estates by the rich, by forbidding all landholders to dispose of their property; and they proceeded to prevent the assignment of lands to the poor, thus bringing back matters to their former condition. But, though the liberties of the Romans were endangered, all but lost, by these measures, they avariciously grasped at new dominions. In 119 B.C. they asserted their supremacy in Sardinia, and in Thrace in 113 B.C., when the Scordisci brought into subjection. In the same year the Cimbri and Teutones, great and powerful tribes of the north, encountered the Romans, under Cneius Papirius Carbo, in Noricum, and defeated them; but subsequently marched westward into Gaul, and made no attempt at that time to renew the strife. 111 years later, the war with Jugurtha, king of Numidia, which forms an important episode in Roman history, broke out. Jugurtha was grandson to the famous

B.C.

Massinissa, who had espoused the cause of Rome against Hannibal. Micipsa, through the death of his brothers Gullussa and Mastanabal, the father of Jugurtha, had acquired the whole of the dominions of his father Massinissa ; and, at his death in 118 B.C., left his kingdom to his sons, Adherbal and Hiempsal. The opposing political parties in Rome during the time of the Gracchi, and in the period that followed, were distinguished by the names of *Optimates* and *Populares*. These designations are somewhat similar to those of Tory and Whig, or Conservative and Radical, in our own times, in general meaning. The Optimates, or Men of the Best Class, included the members of the senate, the knights, and all the rich and wealthy who desired to keep political power and the government of the state in their own hands, to serve their own ends and purposes ; while the Populares, or Men of the People, sought to hoist themselves into power by persuading the people that they sought their interests only, and the common good, by the measures that they proposed. Of these many, like the Gracchi, were unselfish and truly patriotic, but the majority cared more for their own aggrandisement, socially and politically, than for the well-being of the people. The struggles of these parties for the supremacy marked the commencement of the decline of the Republic, and led ultimately to the civil wars which deluged Rome with her best blood. Jugurtha was educated with the two young princes who were left to inherit the kingdom, and being their superior in abilities, and greatly in favour with the people, he murdered Hiempsal, the younger son (117 B.C.), and made the same attempt on Adherbal, the elder, who escaped, and fled to the Romans for succour. Jugurtha, sensible of the avarice and injustice of the senate, sent his ambassadors to Rome with large presents ; which so influenced the senate, that they decreed him half of the kingdom thus acquired by murder and usurpation, and deputed commissioners to divide it between him and Adherbal. Not satisfied even with this, Jugurtha contrived at length to murder Adherbal (112 B.C.), and seize the whole. The people of Rome, who still retained some generosity, unanimously complained of his treachery ; but the senate, who had been bribed to silence, continued for a while in suspense. However, at length the consul Lucius Calpurnius Bestia was sent with a powerful army to execute justice on the murderer ; but he,

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B.C.

being also infected with the avarice of the times, suffered himself to be bribed, and made overtures for peace.

The people, now more enraged than before, procured a decree, that Jugurtha should be summoned in person before them, in order to give an account of all those who had accepted bribes. Jugurtha immediately obeyed, 110

and appeared before the people in a suppliant manner, and in a dress corresponding with his situation ; but instead of discovering those who were bribed, he only set about renewing the evil complained of, and, being sensible that every thing was venal at Rome, took the certain method of interesting some of the men then in office in his cause by the distribution of his riches. In addition to this, he caused to be assassinated Massiva, a son of Gulussa, who was then living in Rome, and who had been persuaded by some of the senators to advance his claim to the throne of Numidia. For this crime and his open bribery he was ordered to quit Rome, and Spurius Postumius Albinus, the consul, was sent into Africa with an army. Albinus, however, was obliged to leave the direction of the army to Aulus, his brother, during his return to Rome, to hold the Comitia. He was, however, in every way unequal to the command, and being led into great straits, was finally compelled to hazard a battle upon disadvantageous terms, at Suthul, and completely defeated. 109  
The Roman army was sent under B.C. the yoke, and a convention concluded, by which it was arranged that Numidia should be evacuated in ten days. This disgraceful treaty was immediately cancelled by the senate, and the necessary measures were taken to prosecute the war.

Caius Marius, a man belonging to the party of the Populares, or Men of the People, who afterwards became the glory and the scourge of Rome, first acted as lieutenant to the consul Metellus, who now took the command of the army in Numidia, and carried it on with vigour for two years, reducing Jugurtha to the utmost straits, although he was not suffered to retain his command long enough to finish the war by his capture. This honour fell to Caius Marius, who had offered himself as a candidate in 108 B.C. for the consulship in the year following, and obtained it, notwithstanding the influence of the Optimates, which they exerted to the utmost against him. In the decisive battle

which virtually terminated the war, and the subsequent negotiations, Lucius Cornelius Sulla, who was afterwards so bitter an opponent of Marius, and the leading man among the Optimates, played a conspicuous part. He had joined the army as quæstor just before the final struggle on the banks of the Mulucha, a river which divided Numidia from Mauritania. The battle lasted three days, and Jugurtha's army was destroyed almost to a man. Jugurtha took refuge with his father-in-law and ally, Bocchus, the King of Mauritania. To make his own peace with Rome, Bocchus gave up Jugurtha to Sulla, who had been sent to him at his own request to settle the terms of a treaty, and Marius carried him to Rome in chains, where he died soon after in prison. Marius was born of poor parents, and was a man of extraordinary stature, incomparable strength, and undaunted bravery. He had entered early into the service of his country, and was remarkable for his exact observance of discipline. His detestation of the senate was soon conspicuous; and he boldly arraigned their corruptions even in the senate-house.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of War with Jugurtha .....	B.C. 111	Defeat of Jugurtha on the banks of the Mulucha .....	B.C. 106
Defeat of Aulus Albius at Suthul.....	" 109	Surrender of Jugurtha to Sulla.....	" 106
Marius assumes chief command in Africa .....	" 107	Death of Jugurtha in Rome .....	" 105

## 2. THE WARS WITH THE CIMBRI AND TEUTONES.

It will be remembered that in 113 B.C., shortly before the commencement of the war with Jugurtha, the consul Cneius Papirius Carbo was defeated in Noricum while making an attack in this country (which was situated to the north-west of Illyricum) on the Cimbri and Teutones, two powerful tribes of Northern Europe, who, it was thought, would make a descent on Italy if they were not stopped in good time. Marching westward slowly, the Cimbri passed through Rætia and Helvetia, now Switzerland, into Gaul, and commenced a movement on Gallia Provincia. The Allobroges in alarm



to the Romans to come to their assistance, and an army accordingly ordered to march against the invaders, only met with total defeat. This reverse was followed

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B.C.

years after by another, in which a Roman army sent under the yoke, and the Cimbri and their prepared to pass into Italy (107 B.C.). They did not, however, carry their intention into effect immediately, and years more elapsed before the northern hordes commenced their march southward. The Romans mean-

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had sent three armies into Gallia Provincia to check their progress. These were defeated one after another, and the terrible news was brought to Rome just as the Romans were rejoicing over the termination of the war with Jugurtha. Marius, the hero of this contest and the favourite of the people, was, it was allowed by all, the only man whom could be entrusted the task of driving back the barbarians with certain hope of success, and he was elected consul for the second time for the year 104 B.C., and was re-elected again and again for the four years that followed.

Immediately on his assumption of office, Marius passed into Gallia Provincia, taking with him Sulla and

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B.C.

many of the officers who had served under him with distinction in the late Jugurthine war. He found that the Cimbri had marched to the south-west into Spain, which gave him ample time to organise his army and prepare for future campaigns. The year after (103 B.C.) the Cimbri, finding themselves unable to maintain a footing in Spain, re-crossed the Pyrenees, and marched northward through the Alps to meet with another check from the Belgæ. During this campaign they had been joined by the Teutones, and the German tribes then resolved to carry out their intention of invading Italy. Having this object in view they separated once more; the Cimbri

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moving eastward through Helvetia and Rhætia, to enter the peninsula from the north, while the Teutones determined to cross the Rhone and make their way southward over the

Marius, who had been watching their movements, left his strongly entrenched position at the junction of the Saône and Isara, now the Isère, permitted them to cross the former river without opposition, and then followed them in their course to Aquæ Sextiæ, seeking a convenient opportunity to attack them. As soon as this offered itself, he

launched his eager troops at them in front and rear, and cut the entire tribe of the Teutones to pieces, taking only a few prisoners, amongst whom was their king Teutobod. The Cimbri were more successful, and after forcing the passes of the Eastern Alps, and defeating a Roman army under Quintus Lutatius Catulus, who was compelled to retire south of the Po, they established themselves for the winter in the plains of Northern Italy.

As soon as the spring had come, Marius, who had spent

101 the winter at Rome, marched to the aid of Catulus,  
B.C. and the two armies crossed the Po and proceeded to meet the Cimbri. The collision took place near the

Ticinus, and the barbarians were again defeated with a slaughter similar to that which had overtaken the Teutones. Few prisoners were taken to be sold into slavery, so desperate was the conflict, and, as may well be imagined, scarcely a man went back to the north to tell the story of the battle in which two tribes of Central and Eastern Europe had wholly perished.

While the struggle with the Cimbri and Teutones was

104 pending, Sicily became the scene of a new Servile  
B.C. War, provoked by causes similar to those which had produced the first; although in this case the slaves

were aided by the lowest class of free men, who were treated with great indignities by the wealthy landowners. At first the slaves, under their king and leader, Tryphon, carried everything before them, and retained the upper hand in the island for two years, in spite of a victory gained over them by a small Roman army, under the prætor Lucius Lucullus,

102 who, strangely enough, omitted to follow up his  
B.C. success. Tryphon dying, was succeeded by a man

named Athenaiion, who showed no little ability as a general and administrator. After the subjugation of the Cimbri, Manius Aquillius, the colleague of Marius in his fifth consulship, was sent into Sicily with an adequate force, and succeeded in quelling the insurrection (99 B.C.), after two years' constant fighting in the field. Athenaiion was killed, and most of the participators in the revolt fell in battle or died by the hand of the executioner. Such was the end of the second attempt of the Sicilian slaves to make themselves masters of the island—an outbreak caused entirely by the cruelty and rapacity of their owners.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Gallia Provincia by the Cimbri ...	B.C. 110	the Teutones by Caius Marius .....	B.C. 102
Roman army defeated by the Cimbri, and sent under the yoke .....	" 107	The Cimbri enter and occupy the countries north of the Po .....	" 102
Defeat of three Roman armies by the Cimbri in Gallia Provincia ...	" 105	Defeat of the Cimbri near the Ticinus by Caius Marius .....	" 101
Caius Marius takes command of the troops in Gallia Provincia .....	" 104	Commencement of Second Servile War in Sicily ...	" 104
Defeat and destruction of		End of the Second Servile War in Sicily .....	" 99

## CHAPTER XIII.

## THE FIRST CIVIL WARS—RIVALRY OF MARIUS AND SULLA.

100 B.C. to 78 B.C.

## 1. MARIUS IN FULL POWER IN ROME—THE SOCIAL WAR.

By his victories Marius had become very formidable to distant nations in war, and soon after grew much more dangerous to his fellow-citizens in peace. During the long period that had elapsed between the end of the Jugurthine War and the final defeat of the Cimbri, Marius had contrived to create a permanent army in the pay of the state, and had given eagles to the legions which composed it as their standards. The people, who regarded him as one of themselves, sprung as he was from their ranks, looked to him for the origination of new measures against the aristocracy, and he was by no means inclined to disappoint them, as long as he could act with them without actual violation of the laws. Metellus, under whom he had served in the commencement of the war with Jugurtha, had long been hateful to him, for his superior influence in the senate; and he, therefore, earnestly wished to have him banished from Rome. To effect this, he encouraged Lucius Appuleius Saturninus, who had secured his election as tribune of the people by bribery and violence, to bring forward a law for the partition among his soldiers of such lands in Gaul as had been recovered in the late war. The law was passed in an illegal manner, and the

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B.C.

senators were then called on to take a solemn oath to carry it into execution. This was done to secure the ruin of Metellus, who, it was well known, would never signify his concurrence under any circumstances. The senators, including Marius, swore to obey the law provided that it were valid; but Metellus, who considered it as a renewal of the ancient disturbances which had been so fatal to the constitution, refused to do so, and, without waiting for Saturninus to propose that he should be banished from Rome, went into voluntary exile. But after this the course adopted by Saturninus proved too daring for Marius to sanction, and he withdrew himself from his former associates. Saturninus, at the ensuing election for tribunes, offered himself for re-election, and was returned. In a riot that he had excited, one of his opponents, Memmius, who was a candidate for the consulship, was beaten to death: the senate resolved to meet force by force, and ordered Marius to quell the sedition. Saturninus on this broke open the prisons, and, arming the slaves, retired to the Capitol. Here he and many of his associates were taken by Marius and put in prison, where they were killed by some of the younger Roman nobles. Marius, now out of favour with the people,

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B.C.

as well as the nobles, left Rome to visit Asia Minor, and Metellus was recalled to Rome by his party. In the following year a fresh war with the Celtiberians broke out. This was quelled after a brief struggle. In 95 B.C. the district of Cyrene, which had been bequeathed to Rome by Apion, the viceroy of Egypt, and the island of Crete, were formed into the new province of Cyrenaica.

An effort was made soon after this by a tribune of the people, Marcus Livius Drusus by name, to exclude

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B.C.

the knights from the juries appointed to try magistrates and others accused of taking bribes when in office, and to confine judicial functions to the members of the senate only. This was done in consequence of the excessive rapacity of the capitalists and wealthy men of Rome, who were so corrupt that there was no chance of obtaining a conviction as long as the accused had money to spend in bribing his judges. He also proposed the distribution of coin among the people, and the foundation of new colonies in the state lands yet unoccupied in Sicily and elsewhere. His plans, which were very much like those of Caius Gracchus, were bitterly opposed by the wealthy classes in Rome, and received

little support from the aristocracy to which body he belonged. They were, however, passed into law by the vote of the people, with the addition that the rights of citizenship could be extended to the allies of Rome in Italy. The senate, however, were by no means disposed to grant this accession to the Italian states, and they took measures to secure the repeal of every clause of the new law. Soon after Drusus was assassinated at his own door in the presence of a large body of his supporters who had escorted him home from the Senate house.

The disappointment which was felt by the Italian states being again refused the rights of Roman citizenship, which they had long been desirous of obtaining, bore its fruit in the Social or Marsic War which immediately followed. In this war the nations of Southern and Central Italy, who had been the last to fall under the dominion of Rome, formed a league to secure their independence, selected Corfinium as their capital, appointed consuls and prætors, in imitation of the Roman magistracy, and took the territory of the Marsi and Samnium. Publius Rutilius Lupus, with Caius Marius as his second in command, who had taken this opportunity to return from his voluntary retirement to public life, was sent against the Marsi, while Lucius Julius Cæsar and his lieutenant Sulla were ordered to march into Samnium. Both consuls were unfortunate, and the chief honours of the campaign were reaped by the political adversaries Marius and Sulla, who, towards its close, managed to turn the tide of war in Rome's favour.

The Roman senate now saw that it was necessary to do something to retain their hold on the states in alliance with them in Northern Italy, and the consul Lucius Julius Cæsar was empowered to bring in a bill for granting enfranchisement and the rights of citizenship to all the states that had not joined in the revolt against Rome. It must not be supposed, however, that the franchise thus granted conveyed the enjoyment of rights precisely similar to those possessed by Roman citizens. For the states being associated with twelve of the thirty-five tribes into which the citizens of Rome were now divided, had but comparatively little weight in the constitution, as the vote cast by a small tribe was equal to political power to that cast by a large tribe, questions being decided by the majority of the votes of the tribes, and

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B.C.

not by individual exercise of the franchise. The war against the people of Southern Italy was prosecuted with vigour by the consul Cneius Pompeius Strabo in B.C. 89, and Sulla as pro-prætor in Southern Italy. A great battle near the Fucine Lake was won by Strabo, who also took Asculum and occupied Corfinium; while Sulla defeated the Samnites in more than one encounter, and took their chief city, Bovianum. In the following year B.C. 88 Sulla, who was now consul, had broken the power of the allies, and was on the point of bringing the war to a conclusion by the capture of Nola in Campania, which he had closely invested. The Social War, indeed, was virtually over, but Rome was on the eve of a contest more terrible than any into which she had as yet entered.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Enactment of Appuleian Rogations.....	B.C. 100	The Rogations of Marcus Livius Drusus .....	B.C. 91
Sedition of Saturninus and his death .....	" 99	Their repeal and murder of Drusus.....	" 91
Visit of Caius Marius to Asia Minor .....	" 99	Outbreak of "Social War" .....	" 90
Formation of province of Cyrenaica.....	" 95	Siege of Nola by Sulla, and virtual conclusion of the War .....	" 88

## 2. THE FIRST COLLISION BETWEEN MARIUS AND SULLA.

The Roman senate, for reasons that will be explained hereafter, had determined to send an expedition against Mithridates, the most powerful monarch of the East, whose dominion extended at this time over Cappadocia and Bithynia, and who had gained by his intrigues considerable influence over the Roman part of Asia Minor, Thrace, Macedon, and all Greece. Sulla, who had been just chosen consul, was with general consent appointed to conduct the Asiatic war. The family of this general was one of the most illustrious in Rome. His manners were easy, and apparently sincere. He loved pleasure, but glory still more. Fond of popularity, he was desirous of pleasing all the world: he could adapt himself to the inclinations, pursuits, follies, or wisdom of those with whom he conversed, or, in other words, could be all things to all men. In consequence of the abilities which he had displayed in the Social War, he was now appointed to the

ment of Asia Minor, in opposition to the claims of

ing the absence of Sulla, who was busy in concluding the civil War in Campania and laying siege to Nola, Marius, with the assistance of Publius Sulpicius Rufus, a tribune of the people, obtained the enactment of a law that the citizens of Italian states should not be confined to the twelve tribes to which they had been apportioned, but should be distributed equally among the whole thirty-five. It was enacted, that the command of the army appointed to

Mithridates, should be transferred from Sulla to Lucius Sulla, however, refused to surrender his command, and his army, after slaying the officers sent to supersede him, declared their general, that he would lead them directly to revenge upon all his enemies at Rome. Accordingly Sulla, who was naturally vindictive, determined to lead the army, animated with the resentment of the soldiers, breathed nothing but slaughter and revenge. It was with no purpose, that the prætors went out from the city to interdict its further progress; and, though the senate enjoined Sulla not to advance within five miles of the city, he soon arrived with all his forces at the gates of the city, which he entered sword in hand, 88

a place taken by storm. Marius, Sulpicius, and his air partizans fled with precipitation, but Sulpicius was slain and killed near Laurentum, and his head was sent to Rome and exposed in the Forum. B.C.

Marius, at the age of seventy, after numberless victories, and consulates, wandered for some time as an outcast and society, in danger every hour of falling into the hands of his enemies. While endeavouring to leave Italy, he was obliged to conceal himself in the marshes at the mouth of the Tiber, where he continued a whole night in a quagmire. At day, he left this dismal place, and made towards the sea, where he hoped to find a ship to facilitate his escape; but he was known and discovered by some of the inhabitants, and conducted to the neighbouring town of Minturnæ with a rope round his neck, and, while still covered over with a cloak, sent to prison.

Marius was unwillingly compelled to conform to the orders of the senate, which had sentenced the fugitives to death, the magistrates of Minturnæ sent a Cimbrian slave to the prison to

### EXPERIMENTAL SUMMARY

<i>Regulation of Instruction and</i>	<i>March of Sulla on Rome</i> . . .	37
<i>Structure of Marius to</i>	<i>Proscriptions and Flight of</i>	
<i>Further Sulla in con-</i>	<i>Marius and Sulpicius</i> . . .	38
<i>tinued of Legislation</i>	<i>Departure of Sulla for the</i>	
<i>against Mitridates</i> . . .	<i>Mithridatic War</i> . . . . .	38

### 3. THE FIRST INTERNATIONAL WAR

either by diplomacy or conquest. On the death of Ariarathes VI. he laid claim to the crown of Cappadocia, which had formerly belonged to the satraps

of Pontus under the Persian, but in this he was checked by Sulla, who at that time (92 B.C.) was pro-consul of the



province of Asia. The year after, the death of Mithridates II., king of Bithynia, gave Mithridates an opportunity, supporting a younger son of the dead monarch, to attempt to drive from the throne his elder brother Mithridates III., who was supported by the Romans. Again separated from open hostilities with Rome, but when the war broke out he took the opportunity, in conjunction with Tigranes, king of Armenia, to prepare for the conquest of the whole of Asia Minor, by intriguing with the Thracians, Macedonians, and Greeks to make common cause with him against Rome. He set his armies in motion and overran the Roman provinces of Asia Minor and the territories of the kings who were at war with, and supported by Rome. The Roman troops everywhere defeated or shut up in their fortresses, and Lucius Quinctius Cincinnatus, who had been sent to Asia to settle matters in Bithynia and Cappadocia, and had declared war against Mithridates in 89 B.C., was taken and put to death.

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B.C.

fixing on Pergamus as his capital, and proclaiming himself king of Asia, as Asia Minor was then called, Mithridates drew Thrace into action, invaded Macedonia, induced the kings to revolt, and took possession of the Piræus, the port of Athens. It was at this juncture that Sulla left Rome with a small army and landed in Epirus. His first step was to defeat the insurgent Greeks in the Peloponnese, and then lay siege to Athens, which did not capitulate till the spring of 86 B.C. The reign of terror under which we shall hear more presently, was now at its height in Rome, but at his death, which fortunately happened before he could check the continuances of his horrible excesses, Lucius Valerius Flaccus was chosen consul in his place and received with orders to supersede Sulla in his command.

87

B.C.

Before his arrival Sulla had gained a brilliant victory over the troops of Mithridates and the Greek rebels near the city of Tenedos: his soldiers, who idolised him, refused to march any one but their old commander; and Flaccus, finding it useless to insist on assuming the command of the army, went on with his own troops into Asia. After his arrival, Sulla, who had passed the winter at Tenedos, gained another victory at Orchomenus, even more brilliant than that of Chæronea, over the combined

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B.C.

## CHAPTER 2. THE BATTLE OF BATTLE

The first of the battles of the battle of Battle was the battle of Battle. The battle of Battle was fought on the 1st of July, 1862, between the Union and the Confederacy. The battle was fought in the state of Virginia, near the town of Battle. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a strategic victory for the Union. The battle was fought on the 1st of July, 1862, between the Union and the Confederacy. The battle was fought in the state of Virginia, near the town of Battle. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a strategic victory for the Union.

The second of the battles of the battle of Battle was the battle of Battle. The battle of Battle was fought on the 2nd of July, 1862, between the Union and the Confederacy. The battle was fought in the state of Virginia, near the town of Battle. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a strategic victory for the Union. The battle was fought on the 2nd of July, 1862, between the Union and the Confederacy. The battle was fought in the state of Virginia, near the town of Battle. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a strategic victory for the Union.

The third of the battles of the battle of Battle was the battle of Battle. The battle of Battle was fought on the 3rd of July, 1862, between the Union and the Confederacy. The battle was fought in the state of Virginia, near the town of Battle. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a strategic victory for the Union. The battle was fought on the 3rd of July, 1862, between the Union and the Confederacy. The battle was fought in the state of Virginia, near the town of Battle. The battle was a tactical draw, but it was a strategic victory for the Union.

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age and capture of		menus — Reduction of	
Athens .....	B.C. 86	Greece .....	B.C. 85
Sulla's victory over Mith-		Sulla passes into Asia—	
ridates and the Greeks		Close of First Mithri-	
at Cheronæa.....	„ 86	atic War .....	„ 84
Sulla's victory at Orcho-		Return of Sulla to Italy...	„ 83

#### 4. THE REIGN OF TERROR UNDER MARIUS AND CINNA.

We must now recount what had taken place at Rome during Sulla's absence in the East. Sulla, on leaving Italy, had overlooked a very formidable opponent, who was daily growing into power and popularity at Rome. This was Lucius Cornelius Cinna, who though born of a patrician family, was an ardent supporter of the popular cause from motives of ambition. Rash, hot, and obstinate, but at the same time bold and enterprising, he was eager after glory, and incapable of patiently waiting its regular approach. He obtained the consulship, in opposition to the influence and interests of Sulla. Endeavouring by force to procure the enactment of the Sulpician law for distributing the citizens of the Italian states among the thirty-five tribes, a powerful body of Sulla's friends, headed by the consul Cneius Octavius, opposed him with arms, and after bloody conflict, Cinna and his partisans were compelled to leave the city. A frightful massacre followed, in which, and in the affray that preceded it, about 10,000 perished.

Cinna immediately began to make levies both of troops and money in Latium and Campania. He then marched to Nola, and having prevailed on the soldiers encamped before that town to espouse his cause, was joined by several of the senators, who had hitherto wavered in their resolution. What, however, was equal to an army in itself, tidings reached him ere, that Marius and his son had left Cercinitis, and were on the road to make a common cause with him.

The old general had accidentally heard of Cinna's efforts to promote the cause he advocated, and accordingly made the rest of his way to join him. Having landed on the coast of Aruria, he blockaded the mouth of the Tiber with some ships that he had seized, and took Ostia. Cinna then sent him a formal appointment as pro-consul with command of the coast, and Marius, having collected a numerous body of troops, pushed forward to Rome and posted himself upon



illa from proceeding homewards. His order to the soldiers sail in winter on foreign service, which was altogether without precedent, produced a mutiny through the whole army; and while Cinna was endeavouring to appease it, he was run through the body by an unknown hand. During the protracted period he had remained in power he had contrived to carry out many of the plans of Gracchus and Clodius, and confer full enfranchisement on the people of the Italian States.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Lucius Cornelius Cinna in power as Consul .....	B.C.	87	March of Marius and Cinna on Rome .....	B.C.	87
Attempt to carry the Sulpician Law—Cinna driven from Rome .....	"	87	Proscription and Massacre by Marius .....	"	87
Massacre of Popular Party in Rome .....	"	87	Death of Marius, now Consul for the seventh time .....	"	86
Return of Marius to Italy ..	"	87	Death of Cinna at Ancona ..	"	84

## 5. THE REACTION UNDER SULLA.

Sulla, after a favourable passage, landed at Brundisium, where he was joined by Cneius Pompey, afterwards named the Great, and by the remains of that shattered party, which had escaped the proscriptions of Marius. Italy, from one extremity to the other, soon felt the desolations and miseries of a declared civil war. The senate had caused Lucius Scipio, the grandson of Scipio Asiaticus and Lucius Norbanus to be elected consuls; and the most preparations were made at Rome and throughout the Italian states to resist Sulla, for they mistrusted his promises to respect their newly-acquired rights, and the senate foresaw and feared the revenge he would take on the partisans of Marius and Cinna. Sulla employed large sums of that money which had been plundered from the East, in extending his interests all over the country, and even among the barbarous nations of Gaul. His march northwards through Italy was a series of successes. Norbanus was defeated and blockaded in Capua, and Scipio's army deserted him to join the standard of Sulla who passed the winter in Campania. The Popular party at Rome, however, showed an undaunted spirit, and their determination was shewn by the election of

Cneius Papirius Carbo as consul for the third time, and Caius Marius, the younger, as his colleague. Both factions, exasperated to madness by mutual injuries and recriminations, gave vent to their fury in several engagements, in most of which Sulla was victorious. The Samnites, who bitterly hated Sulla and remembered the victories he had won over them in the Social War, took part with Marius and Carbo, so the forces on their side were more numerous; but those of Sulla were better united and disciplined.

While Carbo proceeded into Etruria to encounter Pompey, Marius occupied Præneste and the surrounding country to prevent Sulla's advance on Rome. He was completely defeated, however, by Sulla's lieutenant Metellus, who immediately marched against Carbo. Marius, smarting under his defeats, sent orders from Præneste, in which he had taken refuge, to the prætor Lucius Brutus Damasippus to evacuate Rome, but before he did so to put every one of rank and station on whom he could lay hands to the sword. A frightful slaughter ensued before Sulla could reach Rome, which he left almost immediately to march against Carbo in conjunction with Pompey and Metellus. Carbo was at length obliged to succumb, and escaped into Africa. In the meantime a large body of Samnites, under Caius Pontius of Telesia, were marching to the relief of Marius in Præneste, but finding the defiles by which it was approached were occupied by detachments of Sulla's army, they turned aside to avoid a collision, and marching with great expedition to Rome, attacked the city. Though the Romans fought with that animation, which the consciousness of defending every thing dear inspires, they became disheartened by the loss of their general, and seemed preparing for flight, when the troops of Sulla arrived to their assistance. A general and dreadful conflict ensued between the Samnite and Roman army. The battle continued till the morning, when Sulla found himself completely victorious, and visited the field of action, on which more than 50,000 of the vanquished and the victors lay promiscuously. Marius committed suicide soon after being foiled in an attempt to escape from Præneste. Sulla, who had now become the undisputed master of his country, entered Rome at the head of his army. Happy would he have been had he supported in peace the glory

h he had acquired in war, or ceased to live when he d to conquer.

ree or four thousand men who had escaped the general ge having submitted to the conqueror of Rome, he caused to be kept under a guard in the Campus Martius, and o death. Appointed dictator by the senate, with unli- l power, he then commenced a terrible persecution of eaders of the Popular party and their supporters, posting i Rome and the Italian cities long lists of the names of , whom he doomed to destruction. Under the new reign rror, 40 senators, 1,600 knights, and an infinite number e richest citizens of Rome are said to have fallen victims e cruel thirst for vengeance. He declared the children the grandchildren of those who had opposed him inf- , and divested of the rights of freemen ; and ordained, public edict, that those who saved or harboured any of oscribed should suffer in their place. He set a price the heads of such as were thus to be destroyed, and pro- i two talents for every murder. Slaves, excited by such , massacred their masters ; and what was more shocking, ren, whose hands still reeked with the blood of their rts, came confidently to demand the wages of parricide. e enemies of the State were not the only sufferers. . permitted his very soldiers to revenge their private ies. Riches now became dangerous to the possessor, ven the reputation of fortune was equivalent to guilt. e barbarities, however, were not confined to Rome. The rption was extended to the inhabitants of many of the i of Italy, and even whole towns and districts were ed to be laid desolate. As rewards for their fidelity, . gave these to his soldiers, who were thus planted as ary colonies in many parts of Italy. He, however, per- d Caius Julius Cæsar, who became so celebrated in after , and who had married the daughter of Cinna, to live ; gh he was heard to say that there were many Mariuses in

He introduced the payment of fixed taxes to the State, and of permitting capitalists to farm the revenues of the un provinces. He restored the senate to its ancient r and dignity, adding to this body 300 of the knights, to p the gaps that the massacres of Marius and his own rptions had made in its ranks, and he enrolled a force

of 10,000 of the slaves of the proscribed as a force for the maintenance of order in the city: to these slaves he gave full political freedom. Various reforms were made in the government, by which powers was actually vested in the senate and the aristocracy; and, although the people were still called on to vote in tribes on questions of importance, nothing could be brought before them without the sanction of the senate. He gave Rome a criminal code, and established permanent courts of law for the trial of civil and criminal cases. After effecting these, and other reforms social

and political, to the surprise of every one, Sulla not only laid down a power which he had exercised at so much risk and danger, but offered to take his trial before the people, whom he constituted judges of his conduct.

Immediately after his abdication of what may be considered as almost sovereign power, he retired to his villa at

Cumæ, where he died in the following year through breaking a blood-vessel. A public funeral was decreed to his remains by the senate, and his ashes, after his body had been burnt on a funeral pile in the Campus Martius, were deposited near the tombs of the kings, where a magnificent monument was erected over them. On this was an inscription written by his own hand, to the effect that he had never received a kindness or an injury from any man without returning it in full.

It only now remains to summarize briefly the military operations that took place in Italy and the Roman provinces during the time that Sulla was in power. The Samnites held Nola until 80 B.C., when the Social War found its actual termination. The still smouldering sparks of the first Civil War were stamped out for a time in 79 B.C., when the Etruscan town of Volaterræ, in which the remaining partisans of Marius had taken refuge, surrendered. In the provinces, the resistance to Sulla's authority, which had been excited in them by soldiers belonging to the Marian faction, who had hastened thither when Sulla had gained the upper hand in Italy, was quelled by Cneius Pompey, afterwards called the Great. In Sicily, all laid down their arms on his appearance off the coast with a powerful fleet and army, and the Marian leaders were given up, and put to death. Among them was the ex-consul Cneius Papirius Carbo. A single battle served to



destroy any hope that the Marians under Domitius Ahenobarbus had entertained, of finding safety and time to recruit their shattered forces in Africa. Spain was the only province that still struggled against Sulla's authority at the time of his abdication. The troops in this country were under the command and control of Quintus Sertorius, one of the best, bravest, and most moderate of the officers of Marius, who had retired thither when Sulla commenced his proscription, and held the peninsula for several years.

Murena, the proconsul of Asia, had, in 80 B.C., commenced fresh war with Mithridates; but this was of no long continuance, and nothing of importance took place in it, as it was stopped by order of Sulla soon after its commencement.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

March of Sulla on Rome	B.C. 82	Second Mithridatic War	
Massacre ordered in Rome		stopped by the policy of	
by Marius the Younger	" 82	Sulla .....	B.C. 80
Attack of the Samnites on		Pacification of Sicily and	
Rome, and their defeat		Africa by Cneius Pom-	
by Sulla .....	" 82	pey .....	" 79
Sulla made Dictator by		Abdication of Dictator-	
the Senate .....	" 82	ship by Sulla .....	" 79
Proscription by Sulla.....	" 82	Death of Sulla at Cumæ...	" 78

## CHAPTER XIV.

FROM THE DEATH OF SULLA TO THE FORMATION OF THE  
FIRST TRIUMVIRATE.

78 B.C. to 59 B.C.

## 1. THE WAR IN SPAIN—POMPEY'S VICTORY.

By the death of Sulla, the old dissensions, which had been smothered for some time, burst out into a flame between the two factions, headed severally by the two consuls for the year, Quintus Lutatius Catulus and Marcus Æmilius Lepidus. The latter had been supported in his candidature for the consulship by Pompey, much to the annoyance of Sulla, who had warned him against encouraging the pretensions of a man who might ultimately prove a dangerous rival to him. Lepidus wished to rescind

78  
B.C.

the acts of Sulla, and recall the exiled Marians, whilst Catulus vigorously opposed the designs of his colleague. A conspiracy was formed by some of the remaining chiefs of the Marian faction against the dominant party of the aristocracy in Rome, and at the expiration of his year of office Lepidus joined the malcontents with the army that he had levied,

77 when consul in Etruria, and marched against  
B.C. Rome. Catulus, by order of the senate, hastened to stop his progress, and defeated him not far from the city, whereupon Lepidus, with Perperna and the remains of his army, retired to Sardinia, where he died soon after.

However, the party of Lepidus did not expire with him; and a more dangerous enemy to the Roman aristocracy still remained in Spain. This was Sertorius, a veteran soldier, who, having been bred under Marius, had acquired all his virtues, without being tinctured by any of his vices. He was temperate, just, merciful, and brave; and in military skill he seemed to excel every other general of his time. On the dissolution of the Marian party in 82 B.C., this brave commander fell into the hands of Sulla, who dismissed him with life upon account of his known moderation, but who soon after, capriciously repenting his clemency, proscribed, and drove him to the necessity of seeking safety in a distant province. At length, after several attempts on Africa and the coasts of the Mediterranean, he found, as it has been already said, a refuge in Spain (80 B.C.), whither all who fled from the cruelty of Sulla resorted to him, and of whom he formed a senate that gave laws to the whole province. After the death of Lepidus he was joined by Perperna and the soldiers who had previously accompanied Lepidus into Sardinia. For eight years (80-72 B.C.) he continued to sustain a war against the whole power of the Roman state; and he so often out-generalled Quintus Metellus Pius, an old and experienced commander, that the senate found it necessary to send Pompey their favourite to his assistance, with the best troops of the empire.

However, Sertorius maintained his ground against them  
72 both, but after many engagements, in which he  
B.C. was more frequently the conqueror than the conquered, the Spanish tribes began to grow weary of the war, and Sertorius made overtures for peace, which were

med. Even his officers conspired against him, and his death was compassed at last by Perperna who had long aimed at supplanting him and making himself supreme in Spain. This treacherous scoundrel accordingly invited him to a sumptuous entertainment, and after having intoxicated all his attendants, fell upon, and treacherously murdered him. This stroke of barbarity only served to ruin his party, which had been entirely supported by the reputation of his general; for Perperna being soon after overthrown by Pompey, was taken prisoner, and all the rebel provinces readily submitted. On this occasion, the conqueror acted with great prudence and generosity; for Perperna, in hopes of saving his life, having offered to make some important discoveries, and to put into his hands all the papers of Sertorius, in which were several letters from the principal senators of Rome, Pompey rejected his offer, and ordered the traitor to be dispatched, and his papers to be burnt without reading them. By these means, he eased the people of their fears, and prevented those acts of desperation which the consciousness of discovered guilt might have occasioned.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Triumph of Lepidus to restore the Marian faction to power .....	B.C. 77	Pompey sent by the Senate into Spain against Sertorius .....	B.C. 77
Sertorius defeated, and subsequent death in Sardinia .....	" 77	Murder of Sertorius by Perperna .....	" 72
Perperna and the remains of his army join Sertorius in Spain .....	" 77	Perperna defeated, and peace in Spain restored by Pompey .....	" 71

## 2. THE WAR WITH THE GLADIATORS.

It had long been the fashion at Rome to seek amusement in the combats of men with each other, and with wild beasts in huge amphitheatres which were built for the exhibition of shows and spectacles of this cruel character. These men who fought with each other to the death for the pleasure of the Romans were slaves taken in war. They were distributed throughout Italy in different towns, and were trained by their owners who had bought them from

their captors, until the announcement of a great entertainment to be given to the people by some wealthy Roman who was seeking election to some office, or who was celebrating his triumph for victories gained over the enemy, enabled them to dispose of their human chattels with advantage.

At last, a Thracian named Spartacus, who thought it better to die fighting in the field than in the arena, broke away from his owner, who held him in durance somewhere near Vesuvius, and, escaping to the mountains with several of his comrades, raised the standard of revolt. As the news of his daring was carried throughout Italy, slaves and gladiators from every part came to him in crowds, and he soon found himself at the head of at least 100,000 men. The injury that he and his followers wrought to Roman landowners in all parts of Italy, and his successes against

72 the troops sent to quell the insurrection were so  
B.C. considerable, that it was found necessary to send

the consuls for the year against him, but both were defeated with heavy loss. In the year after (71 a.c.) the conduct of the war was entrusted to the prætor Marcus Licinius Crassus, who took severe measures to inspire the beaten armies of the late consuls with fresh confidence, and then commenced active operations in the field. Spartacus was gradually driven southwards towards Rhegium, where Crassus drew a cordon of troops and entrenchments closely round him to prevent his escape. The daring gladiator tried to pass into Sicily, but failing in the attempt, turned like a lion on Crassus, and, breaking through his lines, escaped with most of his followers into Lucania. Being overtaken by Crassus and brought to bay, a bloody battle ensued, in which Spartacus was defeated and slain, and his army cut to pieces. All who were taken prisoners were impaled on sharp stakes planted by the road-side, and there left to die.

Owing to his successes in Spain and elsewhere, Pompey was now the most popular man in Rome, and it seemed as if fortune had delighted in giving him new opportunities of serving his country. In his passage through Cisalpine Gaul homewards, he fell in with and attacked a large body of slaves, who had escaped northwards after the overthrow of Spartacus by Crassus in Italy, and whom he cut to pieces. By destroying this wretched band, he, as he expressed it to the senate, plucked up the war by the roots. Thus ter-

ted the Civil Wars, which had been excited by the  
tion of Marius and Sulla, and in which it is impossible  
lvocate the cause of either party, as both were equally  
, base, self-interested, and venal.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Defeat of Spartacus by the prætor Crassus, and complete collapse of the insurrection .....	B.C. 70
Defeat of Spartacus by the prætor Crassus, and complete collapse of the insurrection .....	B.C. 70
Defeat of Spartacus by the prætor Crassus, and complete collapse of the insurrection .....	B.C. 70

## 3. THE THIRD MITHRIDATIC WAR.

ough the turbulence of faction was now apparently com-  
l, the spirit of ambition had entered into the state;  
he example of Sulla showed how easy it was for any  
tious man to obtain sovereign power. Pompey and  
us were the most illustrious of those, who, at this  
d, engrossed the principal favour both of the senate and  
eople. They were both conquerors; but Pompey was  
ut an equal in military reputation. Crassus, sensible of  
eriority in this respect, freely used his immense wealth,  
ecure the attainment of the objects of his ambition.  
usies soon arose between these great men, who secretly  
d to undermine each other, not for the purpose of  
ig their country, but of establishing their own power.  
rder to obtain the favour of the people during his  
dature for the consulship, Crassus entertained the  
lace of Rome at ten thousand tables set out in different  
of the city, and distributed to the poor corn enough  
ed their families for nearly three months. Pompey on  
ther hand, who was warmly supported by Caius Julius  
r, sought to raise himself still more in the estimation  
e people by declaring himself the leader of the popular  
, and promising the abrogation of all the laws that had  
enacted by Sulla in favour of the aristocracy. Both  
us and Pompey were elected consuls, and the  
' kept his promise by restoring the names of  
knights to the jury lists, to which were now  
l the names of citizens below the rank of knight who  
possessed of a certain amount of wealth, and giving  
to the tribunes of the people all their former privi-

leges. The authority of the senate, whose members were again deprived of the judicial power restored to them by Sulla, was thus considerably abridged.

We must now turn to the new war with Mithridates in Asia Minor, which had broken out in 74 B.C. This war had been caused by an attempt on the part of Mithridates to seize on Bithynia, which had been bequeathed to Rome at his death by Nicomedes III. The consuls for the year, Lucius Licinius Lucullus and Marcus Aurelius Cotta, proceeded to Asia to compel Mithridates to respect the rights of the Republic by force of arms. The latter was defeated before Chalcedon by sea and land, and Mithridates laid siege to

73

B.C.

Cyzicus, from which he was compelled to withdraw by the good generalship of Lucullus, who followed him up while retreating to Pontus, and having defeated him while crossing the *Æsepus* and *Granicus*, and destroyed (72 B.C.) a new army raised in haste for the defence of his dominions, compelled him (71 B.C.) to take refuge in Armenia with Tigranes, his son-in-law.

More than a year elapsed before Tigranes could be prevailed on to lend active aid to Mithridates, and this time was

70

B.C.

spent by Lucullus in reorganizing the province of Asia. The King of Armenia, however, was roused to action at last by the insolent manner in which the envoy of Lucullus demanded the surrender of Mithridates, and he declared war only to meet with defeat and the loss of his capital, *Tigranocerta* (69 B.C.). In the following year (68 B.C.) Lucullus again defeated the combined forces of the two kings near *Artaxata*, but his troops, wearied with the length of the war and anxious to return to Rome, broke into open mutiny. Lucullus was compelled to retire, and Mithridates and his ally regained possession of Pontus and took *Cappadocia* without any difficulty. When the news reached

67

B.C.

Rome the consul *Manius Acilius Glabrio* was sent out to supersede Lucullus, but he did nothing more than condone the offence which the soldiers of Lucullus had committed against their general and military discipline.

At this juncture *Caius Manilius*, one of the tribunes, preferred a law, which was passed, that all the armies of the empire, the government of Asia, and the management of the war with Mithridates, king of Pontus, and Tigranes, king of Armenia, should be committed to *Pompey*, who was in Cilicia.

having just brought to a successful termination an expedition against the pirates who infested the coast of that country and the whole of Asia Minor, and carried their depredations far and wide throughout the Mediterranean Sea. Thus appointed to the command against Mithridates, with almost sovereign power, Pompey went immediately from Cilicia to Bithynia, where he assumed the command of the army of Lucullus and prepared to continue one of the most important wars which had hitherto been undertaken by the Romans.

However, before trying the force of his arms, he thought proper to propose terms of accommodation to Mithridates, who, having recovered a little from the great and numerous losses which he had suffered, determined to follow fortune while it seemed propitious. This monarch designed to pursue the Romans into Armenia, where he expected to cut off their supplies; but being disappointed in this he was obliged to fly, after first killing all such as were unable to accompany him in his retreat. However, Pompey overtook him before he could have time to pass the river 66  
Euphrates, and an engagement ensued, in which B.C.  
the Asiatic soldiers were unable to withstand the force of the European infantry. Mithridates did all that lay in the power of a great and experienced general to lead them on to the charge, and to prevent their terrors, but they could not be brought to endure the shock of the hardy veterans of Pompey.

Being thus again overthrown with the loss of almost all his forces, and finding himself hemmed in on every side by the Romans, he made a desperate effort, at the head of 800 horse, to break through them; and having thus effected his escape, he sought to take refuge with Tigranes in Armenia. This monarch, however, refused to receive him, and hastened to make terms with Pompey and so secure himself in the possession of his kingdom. Mithridates, thus abandoned by his son-in-law, fled to Colchis, a state which had formerly acknowledged his power. Being pursued thither 65  
by Pompey, however, who turned back when he B.C.  
had reached the Phasis, and spent the winter in organizing Pontus as a Roman province, Mithridates took another dreary journey, crossed the Araxes, marched from danger to danger through Asiatic Sarmatia, and assembling all the barbarians whom he met in his way, induced the

years of the tribes to declare against Rome. Still in his youth, he projected the invasion of the Roman empire by marching into Europe, and, after consulting around him the three nations that inhabited Germany and Gaul, choosing the Alps into Italy, as Hannibal had done before him. But his three Asiatic soldiers were ill-disposed to seek the great wars of their leader, and his intention never came to pass, which was promoted by his unwarlike son Pharasmanes, called in Ponticorum, a town of the Caucasus (Taurus), near the Caucasus, in which Mithridates had desired to make his place. Here he was informed by Pharasmanes that death or surrender to the Romans was all that now remained for him. Mithridates, therefore, swallowed poison, which, failing in effect,

§6 He was killed by a Roman soldier named Rufus.

§7 Thus died this great prince, who for twenty-five years opposed Rome: and who, though often defeated by his enemies, his children, and his wives, continually found resources in his own vast and sagacious mind, and was formidable to the very end.

Pompey's next act, after settling matters in Pontus, was to

§8 oustle Mithridates to surrender. He marched south-

§9 wards over the Taurus mountains, setting up and improving kings as his measure. He compelled Darius, king of Media, and Antiochus XIII. king of Syria, to submit to his hegemony: and he obliged Pharnaces, king of Parthia, to retire, and send to retreat a war. He then reduced Syria into a Roman province, and spent the

§10 winter at Damascus, where he was killed on in the

§11 following spring 63 B.C. to arbitrate between Aristobolus and Hyrcanus, the rival claimants of the high priesthood of the Jews, who had achieved their independence in the time of Antiochus IV. (175 B.C.) under the Maccabees, the founders of the line of the Asmonean princes, to which both Aristobolus and Hyrcanus belonged. Pompey valiantly was inclined to espouse the cause of Hyrcanus, so Aristobolus withdrew to Jerusalem, and prepared to resist the Roman conqueror. His courage failed him, and he offered to give up the city, but his adherents threw themselves into the Temple and determined to defend it to the last. The sacred fortress held out for three months, but was at last taken. Pompey entered now the Holy of Holies, and passed for some time upon those things which it was un-



ful for any except the priests themselves to behold ; but showed so much veneration for the place, that he forebore touching any of the vast treasures there deposited. Hyrcanus restored to the priesthood, but his authority was greatly diminished, and the defences of Jerusalem were demolished. On Pompey's return he was honoured with a triumph the most splendid that had ever entered the gates of Rome. In it were exposed the names of fifteen conquered kingdoms, eight hundred cities taken, twenty-nine re-peopled, and a thousand castles brought to acknowledge the empire of Rome. All these victories, however, served rather to heighten the glory than increase the utility of the Roman power.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Leadership of Pompey and Lucullus.....	B.C. 70	Expedition against the Pirates of Cilicia.....	B.C. 67
Commencement of Third and Last Mithridatic War .....	" 74	Pompey enters Pontus and Armenia: Tigranes sues for peace; Mithridates flies northward.....	" 66
Flight of Cyzicus by Mithridates .....	" 73	Death of Mithridates at Panticapæum .....	" 63
Flight of Mithridates by Lucullus at the Æsepus and Granicus .....	" 72	Pompey marches into Syria.....	" 65
Tigranes, king of Armenia, supports Mithridates .....	" 70	Syria reduced to a Roman Province .....	" 64
Flight of the allied kings by Lucullus.....	" 69	Pompey besieges and takes Jerusalem .....	" 63
Lucullus sent into Asia to supersede Lucullus.....	" 67	Close of the Mithridatic War and supplementary expeditions .....	" 63
Pompey undertakes an ex-			

## 4. THE CONSPIRACY OF CATILINE.

While Pompey was pursuing his conquests abroad, Rome was at the verge of ruin, from a conspiracy, projected and carried on by Lucius Sergius Catilina, usually called Catiline, a plebeian by birth, who resolved to build his own power on the downfall of his country. Possessed of courage equal to the most desperate attempts, he could eloquently give a colour to his ambition. Ruined in his fortunes, profligate in his manners, and vigilant in pursuing his aims, he was insatiable after wealth, that he might dissipate it in guilty pleasures. He had served as prætor in 66 B.C., but a charge brought against him of extor-

tion in his province had disqualified him for the consulate in 65 B.C. He was also disappointed in obtaining office for the year 63 B.C. by the election of Caius Antonius, with whom he had hoped to share the honour of holding the chief magistracy of Rome, and Marcus Tullius Cicero, the celebrated orator, whose return the senators had combined to procure through fear and dislike of Catiline. Having been thus foiled twice in his attempts to obtain the consulship, he became enraged, and breathed nothing but revenge. He gathered round him about thirty conspirators, and laid before them his plan of operation. It was resolved, that a general insurrection should be raised throughout Italy; that Rome should be fired in several places at once; and that Catiline, at the head of an army collected in Etruria, should, in the general confusion, possess himself of the city, and massacre all the senators: but on due consideration it was considered better to postpone the attempt till after the consular elections in 63 B.C. for the ensuing year.

However, by the vigilance of Cicero, who had now entered

63  
B.C. on his consulship, a detail of all the deliberations of the conspirators being obtained, proper precautions were used against their designs, and the senate

was informed of the danger which threatened Rome. Catiline finding all discovered, left the city by night, with a small retinue, and hastened towards Etruria, where Manlius, one of the conspirators, was raising an army for his support. In the meantime, Lentulus, Cethegus, Statilius, Gabinius, and several of his supporters in the city, were arrested and put to death by command of the senate.

Catiline being informed that his confederates in Rome had been condemned and strangled, attempted to make his escape over the Apennines into Gaul, but was hemmed in on every side by two armies superior to his own, one of which was under the prætor Metellus Celer and the other under the consul Antonius. Catiline turned to encounter the latter and an engagement then ensued, in which the instigator and con-

62  
B.C. triver of the whole conspiracy and his followers fought desperately to the last man, and all of them fell in the very ranks in which they stood when

alive. The commonwealth being thus freed from the apprehension of danger, public thanks were decreed Cicero by the senate, and at the instance of Cato, he was styled the Father

of his country. A reaction, however, took place against Cicero when he laid down office, inasmuch as Lentulus and the others had been put to death without exercising the right of appeal to the people which belonged to them. Their execution, though absolutely necessary for the safety of the state and as an example to others, was nevertheless illegal, and a stain rested on Cicero's fair fame which was never after removed.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Formation of Catiline's		Withdrawal of Catiline	
Conspiracy .....	B.C. 64	from the City .....	B.C. 63
Its detection by Cicero...	" 63	His defeat and death .....	" 62

## 5. THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE.

Pompey, who had now returned from conquering the East, and had obtained the surname of Great, was unquestionably the most powerful man in the state ; but he seemed to be more desirous of being the leader than the ruler of his country, of being applauded than obeyed.

61  
B.C.

Crassus, the richest man in Rome, was, next to Pompey, possessed of the greatest authority ; and his party in the senate was even stronger than that of his rival. They had been long disunited by an opposition of interests and of characters, but it was not long that they were destined to continue so.

A short time before Pompey's return, a Roman of rank and wealth, but a man of worthless character, was discovered in the house of Julius Cæsar in the disguise of a woman, when the Roman matrons had met there to celebrate the rites of Bona Dea, or Good Goddess. The offence was one of an unpardonable nature, as it was considered sacrilege for a man to be present at this religious ceremony, and steps were taken at the instigation of Cicero to bring the offender to trial. This was done accordingly, but Clodius procured an acquittal through bribery. Cæsar divorced his wife Pompeia, as some suspicion attached to her of having conspired at Clodius' presence in her house. Cicero had vainly tried to set on foot a political alliance between himself and Pompey in order to win over the latter to the aristocratic party ; but Pompey appears to have been already jealous of Cicero's influence in the senate, and the refusal of the



l with every accomplishment that could tend to cement  
federation.

is period, the commonwealth was composed of three  
bodies, each actuated by separate interests. The  
ate aimed at sovereign authority, and wished, by  
ng the senate and cajoling the people, to extend their  
a. The senate, equally apprehensive of the three  
m who controlled them and of the people who opposed  
rmed a middle interest between both; and, being  
a re-establishing the aristocracy which had been set  
ulla, their struggles were dignified with the name of

On the other hand, the people were anxious for  
n the most extensive sense, and with a fatal blind-  
ng only apprehensive of the invasion of it from the  
he senate, gave all their influence to the triumvirate,  
romises were as magnificent as their pretences were

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

f Pompey from		First Consulship of Julius	
t .....	B.C. 61	Cæsar .....	B.C. 59
acquittal of Clo-		Formation of First Tri-	
.....	„ 61	umvirate by means of	
of Cæsar from		a political alliance be-	
and his election		tween Cæsar, Pompey,	
consulship .....	„ 60	and Crassus.....	„ 59

### CHAPTER XVI.

#### THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE FIRST TRIUMVIRATE TO THE DEATH OF CÆSAR.

59 B.C. to 44 B.C.

##### 1. FALL OF CICERO—CÆSAR IN GAUL.

time there can be no doubt that Cæsar was aiming  
on obtaining supreme power in Rome; and, as a  
this end, he procured from the senate his appoint-  
proconsul of Cisalpine Gaul and Illyricum for five  
th authority to take measures for the reduction of  
ine Gaul, the country now called France. At the  
is time he would, he considered, doubtless find him-  
e head of an army devoted to him, and ready to do

his bidding whatever it might be. Just before *Cæsar's* departure, *Claudius*, who entertained a bitter animosity to *Cicero*, made a successful attempt to drive him into exile; and *Cæsar*, *Pompey*, and *Crassus*, to their disgrace, each full of his own designs, made no effort to save him from disgrace. This great orator and statesman, as well as excellent philosopher, who had ever been a watchful guardian over the few remaining liberties of *Rome*, had by his wisdom, and by all the virtues which can adorn a man, raised himself from a very humble origin to the foremost ranks of the state. *Clodius*, who, as it has been said, was of patrician birth, of dissolute manners, and great popularity, impeached *Cicero* on the pretence of illegal measures pursued in the suppression of *Catiline's* conspiracy. Accordingly, this great man was banished four hundred miles from *Italy*, and his estates were confiscated.

It will be unnecessary to trace the career of *Cæsar* in *Gaul*, and, indeed, impossible to enumerate here all the battles which *Cæsar* fought, or the states which he subdued, in his expeditions into *Gaul* and *Britain* in the period of eight years (58—50 B.C.) during which he continued in his command, as the progress of results in *Rome* has a fuller claim on our attention. Suffice it therefore to observe, that the *Helvetians*

56  
B.C. were the first brought into subjection, with the loss of nearly two hundred thousand men; while *Cæsar* sent those who remained after the carnage in safety to their forests whence they had issued. He next cut off the *Germans* to the number of eighty thousand: their monarch, *Ariovistus*, narrowly escaping in a little boat across the *Rhine*. He then defeated the *Belgæ* with so great a slaughter that

57  
B.C. marshes and deep rivers were rendered passable on the heaps of carnage. The *Nervians*, who were the most warlike of those barbarous nations, made

head for a short time, and fell upon the *Romans* with such fury that their army was in danger of being utterly routed; but *Cæsar*, hastily catching up a buckler, rushed through his troops into the midst of the enemy, and so effectually changed the aspect of affairs that the barbarians were all cut off to a

58  
B.C. man. He next subdued the *Veneti*, the *Morini*, and other tribes of the Celtic *Gauls*, who were powerful at sea; and, after them, the *Suevi*, the *Sigambri*, and other tribes on the *Rhine*, and led an expedi-

tion into Britain without any decided success. From this he returned just in time to quell a rising of the Morini. 55

In the following year, Cæsar led a second expedition into Britain, and nominally reduced the island to subjection ; but the turbulent tribes of Gaul were difficult to hold in check, and Cæsar's lieutenants had hard-work to hold their own during the winter against the attacks of the Nervii and others who rose in insurrection. B.C.

54 B.C. Cæsar, however, who never permitted hostile action against his authority to go unpunished, carried fire and sword through the territories of the rebellious tribes, and crossed the Rhine to attack the Ubii and Suevi. 53

52 B.C. In the next year, his power in Gaul was almost overthrown by a general rising of the tribes under Vercingetorix, and it was not until the year after that the rebellion was completely reduced, and tranquillity restored. The remainder of this year, and of that which followed, was spent by Cæsar in securing, by a conciliatory policy, the future fidelity of the tribes of Gaul to Rome ; and, towards the close of 50 B.C., Cæsar began his march homewards. B.C.

After affording the most vigorous, though impolitic support, to Cæsar for so many years, Pompey began at length to be roused from his lethargy by the rising reputation of his future rival, the fame of whose valour, riches, and humanity, secretly gave him pain. The deaths of Julia (54 B.C.) and Crassus, tended to hasten the rupture between him and Cæsar. But though Pompey wished to lessen the authority of Cæsar, he found that it was now too late, and that his rival was adored by his army, whose attachment he had gained by his generosity.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of Cæsar's proconsulship in Gaul...	B.C. 58	Second Expedition to Britain—Revolt of Gauls	B.C. 54
Conquest of Helvetians and Ariovistus.....	„ 58	Chastisement of the Gauls, and attack on the Ubii and Suevi.....	„ 53
Conquest of the Belgæ, &c.	„ 57	Revolt of Vercingetorix	„ 52
Subjection of Veneti, &c.	„ 56	Subjugation of Gaul .....	„ 51
Attack on Suevi, &c.—First Expedition to Britain.....	„ 55	Return of Cæsar from Gaul into Italy .....	„ 50

## — HIS AND LOOKS—THE PATH OF CRASSUS.

THE FIRST NEW TURNING IN THE COURSE OF AFFAIRS  
 37 came after the banishment of Cato had been procured by  
 38 Crassus. This powerful member of the aristocratic party found  
 39 in Pompey a man no better per-  
 40 sonified than himself, as who took the popular side,  
 41 and regarded his position as Tribune of the people,  
 42 as a service done well to office, until the  
 43 banishment of Cato forced a pretense should afford him  
 44 the name of party as before. These were three bands of  
 45 soldiers at their disposal, and for many years Rome was  
 46 more divided by interests that centered in the prosecution  
 47 of the war than by any other service to the state.  
 48 Crassus, the richest man in Rome, from banishment.

After his third marriage, during his residence in winter  
 49 quarters at Brundisium, in his province of Cilicia-Gaul.

50 War threatened the partition of the three provinces  
 51 of the Republic with Pompey and Crassus. It was  
 52 agreed that measures should be taken to secure the  
 53 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year  
 54 and to secure the continuance of their in the command  
 55 of the army. The first step was the election of Cato  
 56 and the restoration of the army to the hands of Crassus.  
 57 The first step was the election of Cato and Crassus  
 58 as consuls for the next year. The first step was the  
 59 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year.

60 Crassus was appointed consul. The first step was the  
 61 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year.  
 62 The first step was the election of Cato and Crassus as  
 63 consuls for the next year. The first step was the  
 64 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year.

65 Pompey married himself with the daughter of Crassus  
 66 and Crassus himself in the next year.  
 67 The first step was the election of Cato and Crassus as  
 68 consuls for the next year. The first step was the  
 69 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year.

70 Pompey was appointed consul. The first step was the  
 71 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year.  
 72 The first step was the election of Cato and Crassus as  
 73 consuls for the next year. The first step was the  
 74 election of Cato and Crassus as consuls for the next year.



opotamia. A battle ensued at Charrhæ, in which the  
ian troops were completely defeated and compelled to  
at. The Parthians hovered round the beaten and  
irited legions day after day ; at last Crassus himself fell,  
his head and hands were sent to the Parthian king,  
les, or Arsaces XIV., who ordered molten gold to be  
ed into the mouth of the man who had ventured to  
k him, in mockery of his avarice when living. The  
ins of his army were led back into Syria amid terrible  
s and privations, by Octavius and Cassius. The first  
nvirate was at an end, and it remained for time to show  
h of the two survivors would ultimately obtain the  
ary in Rome.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

o's recall procured by		Consulship of Pompey and	
lo .....	B.C. 57	Crassus.....	B.C. 55
ed rivalry of Clodius		Plunder of the Temple at	
l Milo .....	" 57	Jerusalem by Crassus...	" 54
tion of the Provinces		Parthian War, Defeat of	
anged by the Trium-		the Romans, and Death	
ate .....	" 56	of Crassus.....	" 53

POMPEY'S ATTEMPT TO SECURE SUPREME POWER—COMMENCE-  
MENT OF THE STRUGGLE BETWEEN CÆSAR AND POMPEY.

æsar, indeed, seemed to acquire immense riches, only to  
ow them on the bravest and most deserving of his sol-  
; he paid the debts of many of his officers, and held out  
y motive to wean their love from the public, and to place  
their commander. His attentions were not fixed upon  
military alone, but extended to his partisans in the city ;  
illaged the wealth of his provinces to diffuse it among  
itizens of Rome ; and thus even rapine assumed in him  
ir of munificence.

mpsey was not unapprised of this, and, finding at last  
he had committed a fatal oversight, longed to resume  
influence which others had insidiously wrested from

An opportunity soon offered for obtaining his desire.  
elections for the consulship for which both Clodius and  
were candidates, had been postponed from time to time  
ugh the conflicts of their factions, and at the close of the  
53 B.C., no consuls had been appointed for the year en-



appear, perceived this artifice, and chose to remain in his province.

The senate, from a wish to serve Pompey, who had for some time attempted to defend them from the encroachments of the people, ordered Cæsar to send home two legions under pretence of opposing the Parthians ; but, in reality, to diminish Cæsar's power. Though Cæsar easily perceived their motive, as his plans were not yet ready for execution, he complied with the orders of the senate, having previously attached to him the officers by benefits, and the soldiers by a bounty.

50

B.C.

Every person now saw the danger of the state if Cæsar should be continued in the command of an army which was entirely devoted to his interests, and became almost invincible by long experience. The senate, therefore, as his appointment was very near expiring, recalled him from his government. Curio, a tribune of the people, whom Cæsar had bribed to his interests, pretended highly to approve of the resolution of the senate, but intimated, that the best method for public security was, to order both Pompey and Cæsar to lay down their commands, and declare him an enemy to his country that should disobey. This proposal was carried in the senate by a large majority.

Curio made the proposal with a certainty of its being rejected by Pompey, whom he knew to be too fond of command, and too confident of his superiority over Cæsar, to begin the submission. In fact, he judged very justly ; for Pompey was rendered arrogant, as well by his good fortune and his present honours, as by the false accounts which his flatterers had reported concerning the fancied disaffection of Cæsar's soldiers to their general. Immediately after the vote of the senate Pompey left Rome and retired to Naples, but the decree of the senate was not put in force ; for Caius Claudius Marcellus, the consul, who was hostile to Cæsar, refused to execute it.

Cæsar, who was instructed by his partisans in all that passed at Rome, was willing to give his actions the appearance of justice ; and had written to the senate several times, desiring that he might be continued in his government of Gaul, as Pompey had been in that of Spain ; or else that they should dispense with his absence, and permit him to stand for the consulship. He had also agreed to lay down

his employment when Pompey should do the same. Finding all his attempts at an accommodation fruitless, and conscious, if not of the goodness of his cause, at least of the devotion of his troops, Cæsar began to draw towards the confines of Italy, and, passing the Alps with his third legion, stopped at Ravenna, a city of Cisalpine Gaul. From this place he once more wrote a letter to the consuls, declaring that he was ready to resign all command, if Pompey would show equal submission; but, he added, that if all power was to be given to one, he would endeavour to prevent so unjust a distribution, and that, if they persisted, he would shortly arrive in Rome, to punish their partiality and the wrongs of his country. By these menaces he exasperated the whole body of the senate against him. Marcellus, the consul, gave way to his rage; and Lentulus, his colleague, who was already of a ruined fortune, and therefore indifferent about events, openly declared, that, after such an insult, farther deliberation was needless, and that arms was the only resort.

Soon after, the senate decreed, that Cæsar should resign his government and disband his forces, within a limited time, under the penalty of being declared an enemy to the commonwealth. They next invested Pompey and the consuls, Lentulus and Marcellus, with absolute authority. Curio, and the two tribunes, Marcus Antonius, better known as Marc Antony, and Quintus Cassius Longinus, with other partisans of Cæsar, apprehensive of personal danger, disguised themselves as slaves, and fled to the camp of their patron, deploring the injustice and tyranny of the senate, and pleading their merits in his cause. Cæsar produced them to his army in the habits which they had thus assumed, and burst into severe invectives against the senate, alleging their tyranny over the state, their cruelty to his friends, and their flagrant ingratitude to him for all his past services. The soldiers unanimously cried, that they would follow him wherever he should lead, and were ready to revenge his injuries, or die in the attempt. Every man now prepared for a new service of danger, and, forgetting the toils of ten former campaigns, retired to his tent to meditate on future conquest.

Cæsar marched his army to the Rubicon, a little river which separates Italy from Gaul, which terminated the

of his command, and to pass which with an army, a man, or even a single cohort, had long before been deemed sacrilege and parricide by a decree of the senate. Crossing, therefore, on the banks of the Rubicon, he viewed the stream, and exclaimed, "If I pass this river, what perils shall I bring upon my country! and, if I do not, I am undone." He then plunged in, saying, that the die was cast, and was followed by his soldiers with equal promptitude, quickly arriving at Ariminum, made themselves masters of the place without resistance.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Crassus killed by Milo, B.C. 52	Halt of Cæsar at Ravenna B.C. 50
Expulsion of the Senate	Cæsar crosses the Rubicon
Cæsar ..... „ 50	..... Jan. „ 49

## 4. RENEWAL OF CIVIL WAR—PHARSALIA.

The news of Cæsar's unexpected advance excited the greatest terror in Rome, and at the same instant might be seen the citizens flying into the country for safety, and the inhabitants of the country seeking shelter in the city. This universal confusion Pompey felt all that was to befall him, which must necessarily have arisen from the remembrance of having advanced his rival to his present height of power. Several of his former friends were ready to reproach him of supineness, and sarcastically to reproach his wounded confidence; and Cato reminded him of the warnings which he had given him, and to which he had paid no attention. Wearied with these reproaches, which were offered under colour of advice, Pompey endeavoured to encourage and confirm his followers. He confessed, indeed, that he had been deceived in Cæsar's aims, of which he had been deceived only by the purity of his own; but if his friends were still inspired with the love of freedom, they might yet overcome him. He consoled them by holding out the most flattering prospects, that his two lieutenants were at the head of a considerable army in Spain, composed of veteran troops who had made a conquest of the East; and that, besides these, there were infinite resources both in Asia and Africa, together with the succours which they might reasonably expect to receive from all the kingdoms in alliance with Rome. This

representation, in some measure, revived the hopes of the confederacy. Not being in a capacity to resist Cæsar at Rome, he resolved to lead his forces to Capua, and join his two legions which were there stationed; and the greatest part of the senate, his private friends and dependants, together with all those who espoused his cause, agreed to follow him. But no words can paint the misery of the scene when he quitted Rome: ancient senators, respectable magistrates, and many of the flower of the young nobility, thus obliged to leave their native city defenceless to the invader, raised a universal concern in all ranks of people, who followed them part of the way with lamentations, tears, and prayers for their success.

Cæsar being unable to bring Pompey to an accommodation, resolved to pursue him into Capua, and marched on to take possession of the cities that lay between him and his rival, without regarding Rome, which he knew would fall of course to the conqueror. Corfinium was the first city which attempted to stop the rapidity of his progress, and which was defended by Domitius, whom the senate had appointed to succeed him in Gaul, and was garrisoned by twenty cohorts. Domitius, however, being disappointed in his hopes of relief, was at last obliged to endeavour to escape privately; but the garrison being informed of his intention, resolved to consult their own safety, by delivering him up to the besiegers. Domitius, finding that all hope of resistance was gone, implored forgiveness for himself and the rest of his confederates, and reminded Cæsar of their ancient friendship. Cæsar without waiting the conclusion of his speech, generously replied, that he entered Italy not to injure, but restore, the liberties of Rome and its citizens. This humane reply being made known in the city, the senators, and the knights with their children, and some officers of the garrison, came out to claim the protection of the conqueror, who, mildly glancing at their ingratitude, gave them their liberty, and allowed them to depart whither they would. However, while he dismissed the leaders, he, upon this, as upon all other occasions, attached the common soldiers to his interest, being sensible that he might stand in need of an army, but that, so long as he lived, his army would never want a commander.

Pompey being informed of what passed upon this occasion,

immediately retreated to Brundisium, where he resolved to stand a siege, in order to delay the enemy till the forces of the empire could be collected. Cæsar, as was expected, soon arrived before the place, and, after offering in vain to reconcile their differences by negotiation, turned all his thoughts to carry on the war, which Pompey, on his side, resolved to prosecute with equal vigour.

Having succeeded in detaining Cæsar some time before Brundisium, Pompey privately embarked the garrison of the town, and transported them to Dyrrhachium, a town of Epirus, nearly opposite Brundisium, and which was formerly called Epidamnus, where the consuls were levying men for the service of the Republic. Cæsar finding that he could not follow him for want of shipping, returned to Rome, and took possession of the public treasury, which he pillaged of three thousand pounds weight of gold, besides an immense quantity of silver. He then led his army a long and fatiguing march across the Alps, and through the extensive provinces of Gaul, to meet in Spain those veteran legions under the lieutenancy of Pompey which had long been constantly victorious. After defeating the best troops of the empire, and obliging them to yield at discretion, he became master of all Spain, and returned again victorious to Rome. The citizens received him with fresh demonstrations of joy, and created him dictator and consul ; but he laid down the former office, after holding it only eleven days.

In the meantime, Pompey was actively employed in making preparations in Epirus and Greece ; and all the monarchs of the East had declared in his favour, and sent him very large supplies. He was master of nine effective Italian legions, and possessed a fleet of five hundred large ships, under the conduct of Bibulus, an experienced commander. He was daily joined by crowds of the most distinguished nobles and citizens who arrived from Rome. At one time he had in his camp above two hundred senators, among whom were Cicero and Cato, whose approbation of his cause was equivalent to an army. All these advantages, both of strength and council, induced mankind to wish well to his cause, and raised an opposition which threatened Cæsar with destruction, notwithstanding the progress that he had made.

After making the necessary preparations, with a courage that to ordinary minds might seem to be rashness, Cæsar

resolved to face his rival in the East, and embarked his forces at Brundisium. The two rival armies came in sight of each other near Dyrrhachium, on the opposite banks of the river Apsus; and as both were commanded by the two greatest

48

B.C.

generals then in existence, a battle was eagerly desired by the soldiers on each side. But neither of them was willing to hazard it on this occasion; Pompey not being able to rely upon his new levies, and Cæsar not wishing to venture an engagement till he was joined by the rest of his forces, who were still in Italy, and whose arrival he waited with great impatience.

Pompey led his troops to Asparagium, near Dyrrhachium, and encamped on a tongue of land that jutted into the sea, where also was a small but safe bay for ships. Cæsar finding him intrenched in so advantageous a post, drew circumvallations behind him, and hoped by a blockade to force his opponent to a battle, which he ardently desired, and which the other as studiously declined. At length, an engagement took place, and Cæsar's army being entangled in some old entrenchments, fell into disorder, and great numbers of them perished. Pompey pursued his success to the very camp of Cæsar, but, fearing an ambuscade, withdrew his troops, and by this timid caution lost the empire of the world.

However, the resolution of Cæsar did not forsake him, nor his hopes fail. He found that hitherto his attempts to force Pompey to engage on equal terms were ineffectual; and he, therefore, resolved to appear as if willing to protract the war in his turn. Having called his army together, he addressed them with his usual composure and intrepidity; and after encouraging his legions, and degrading some of the subaltern officers who had been remiss in their duty, he prepared to decamp, and make his retreat to Apollonia, where he designed to refresh and recruit his troops. Having, therefore, sent his baggage before, he followed at the head of his soldiers; and, though pursued by Pompey, yet having the advantage in point of time, he effected his intention. Cæsar being informed that Domitius, one of his lieutenants who was stationed in Macedonia, was in danger of being cut off by the enemy, marched thence to his assistance, and was joined by Domitius on the frontiers of Thessaly.

The officers of Pompey being greatly elated with their late victory, continually solicited their general to bring them



to a decisive battle, and even presumed to tax the purity of his motives for procrastination. Pompey, thus assailed by men of weak heads and eager expectations, and incessantly teased with importunities to engage, renounced his own better judgment, and, advancing into Thessaly, encamped on the plains of Pharsalia. Thither also Cæsar marched ; and the approach of these two great armies, together with the greatness of the prize for which they contended, filled the minds of all with anxiety. Pompey's troops, which were more numerous than Cæsar's, seemed confident of victory, and hoped much from the justice of their cause.\*

When the two armies were drawn out for battle, they continued to gaze upon each other for some time with mutual terror and dreadful serenity. At length the trumpets sounded, and the engagement commenced with great impetuosity. The infantry maintained the contest with equal success ; but the cavalry of Pompey, which was more numerous, and on which he rested all his hopes, were totally routed, and fled in great disorder to the neighbouring mountains. Cæsar then marched to the camp of his opponent, which was bravely defended for some time ; but as nothing could resist the ardour of the victorious army, the camp and trenches were at last evacuated, and the survivors escaped to the mountains. On seeing the field and camp strewn with his fallen countrymen, Cæsar appeared deeply affected at so melancholy a spectacle, and exclaimed, as if by way of justification, "They would have it so !"

Upon entering the camp of the enemy, every object presented fresh instances of the blind presumption and madness of his adversaries : in all parts were tents adorned with ivy and branches of myrtles, couches covered with purple, and side-boards loaded with plate. In short, all things evinced the most refined luxury, and seemed rather preparations for a banquet, or the rejoicing for a victory, than the dispositions for a battle. Thus Cæsar by his conduct gained the most complete victory in the annals of history, and, by his great clemency after the engagement, seems to have deserved it. His loss amounted only to two hundred men ; whilst that of Pompey was not less than fifteen thousand. Twenty-four

\* It appears, however, that Cæsar made repeated overtures of accommodation, which Pompey unfortunately refused.

thousand men surrendered themselves prisoners of war, and the greatest part of them entered into Cæsar's army. Among the men of rank that submitted to Cæsar soon after the battle, was Marcus Junius Brutus, who was admitted to the closest intimacy with Cæsar, and who subsequently became one of his murderers. After performing all necessary duties, Cæsar, being determined to follow Pompey, began his march, and arrived the same day a Larissa.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Cæsar's advance on Rome	B.C. 49	Cæsar returns, and is made	
Flight of Pompey .....	" 49	Dictator .....	B.C. 49
Withdrawal of Pompey's		Cæsar crosses into Mace-	
troops to Dyrrhachium	" 49	donia .....	" 48
Cæsar visits Rome and		Battle of Pharsalia—De-	
goes thence to Spain ...	" 49	feat of Pompey ... June	" 48

#### 5. DEATH OF POMPEY—AFFAIRS OF EGYPT AND THE EAST.

When Pompey learnt that Cæsar's soldiers were storming his camp he fled with precipitation, and embarking on board a vessel which he found at the mouth of the Peneus, in Thessaly, steered to Lesbos, to take in his wife Cornelia, whom he had left there, at a distance from the theatre of

war. He then resolved to apply to Ptolemy XI.,  
 48 king of Egypt, to whose father he had been a con-  
 B.C. siderable benefactor, and, sailing to the Egyptian coast, sent to implore protection and safety. But the ministers of Ptolemy, dreading the power of Cæsar, basely determined to court his favour by the murder of his rival. Accordingly, they sent a boat to the ship for Pompey inviting him to a conference with the king, and as soon as he was brought on shore, Septimius, a Roman centurion, who had fought under his banners, stabbed him, and cutting off his head, threw the naked body on the strand, which was abandoned to every insult. However, Philip, his faithful freedman, and an old soldier who had served under Pompey in his youth, burnt the corpse, and collecting the ashes, buried them on a hillock and placed a large stone over the spot as memorial to mark the site. Such was the melancholy end, and such the mean funeral of Pompey the Great, who had

many opportunities of enslaving his country, but rejected them all with disdain.

Pompey was fonder of glory than of power, of praise than command, and more vain than ambitious. His talents in war were only inferior to those of Cæsar ; and it was, therefore, his peculiar misfortune to contend with a man, in whose presence all other military merit lost its lustre. It is doubtful whether, during the last war, his aims were more pure than those of Cæsar, as they could not be tried by the event ; but it is certain, that he frequently rejected all offers of accommodation, and pluming himself on the superior justice of his cause, began to forget the instability of fortune, and to menace before he possessed the power. With whatever mildness he might have conducted himself, in case of victory, it was impossible for him to exceed the moderation of Cæsar. Rome was become too much depraved, and sunk in luxury, to be any longer able to preserve its freedom ; and from this period, the Roman empire could not exist without a master.

Cæsar pursued Pompey to Alexandria, where one of the murderers presented the head and ring of his rival, in order, as he supposed, to propitiate the conqueror. Cæsar, however, had too much humanity to be pleased with so horrid a spectacle, and turning from it with disgust, gave vent to his sensibility in a flood of tears. He caused the head to be burned, and placed the ashes in a temple, which he built near the spot where Pompey fell, and consecrated to Nemesis, the goddess who was supposed to take vengeance on those that oppress the miserable.

At this time the sovereignty of Egypt was in dispute between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. The latter, though married to her brother, and joint heir by the will of her father, was ambitious of undivided authority. Cæsar, captivated by the charms of the beautiful queen, decided in her favour. A war, known as the Alexandrine War, ensued, in which Ptolemy was killed, and Egypt subdued by the Roman arms. Cæsar then appointed Cleopatra, with her younger brother, an infant, joint governors, according to the intent of their father's will. At length, in order to oppose Pharnaces, the son of Mithridates the Great, who had made some inroads upon the Roman dominions in the East, he resolved to leave Cleopatra, by whom he had a son, afterwards named Cæsarion, and for whom he had

for a time abandoned every object of ambition. Pharnaces, anxious to recover his paternal dominions, had seized on Armenia and Cappadocia, and had defeated Calvinus, Cæsar's legate, in Asia. Cæsar, however, hastened from Egypt to check his victorious career, and gained a victory over him at Zela, in Pontus, with so much ease, that, in writing to a friend at Rome, he expressed the rapidity of his conquests in three words, "*Veni, Vidi, Vici*"—I came, I saw, I conquered.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Murder of Pompey .....	B.C. 48	Invasion of Province of	
Alexandrine War, and Set-		Asia by Pharnaces .....	B.C. 47
tlement of Affairs of		Defeat of Pharnaces by	
Egypt by Cæsar .....	„ 47	Cæsar .....	„ 47

#### 6. FINAL OVERTHROW OF POMPEY'S PARTY—SUPREMACY OF CÆSAR AT ROME—MURDER OF CÆSAR.

Cæsar, having disposed of the government of the Asiatic provinces, embarked for Italy, where he arrived sooner than his enemies could expect, but not before his affairs there absolutely required his presence. During his absence he had been created consul for five years, dictator for one year, and tribune of the people for life. But Marc Antony, who acted as his deputy at Rome, had filled the city with riot and debauchery, and several commotions ensued, which only the opportune arrival of Cæsar could have appeased. Having restored order and confirmed his authority at home, he hastened to land in Africa, where Pompey's party had rallied under Scipio, Cato, and Pompey's sons, Cneius and Sextus, assisted by Juba, king of Mauritania. Cæsar's good fortune still seemed to attend him; and the enemy received a complete and final overthrow near Thapsus, on the coast of Byzacium, with little or no loss on his side. Juba and Petreius killed each other in despair at Zama; and Scipio killed himself, being driven back by a storm on the African coast, while attempting to escape into Spain. Cato shut himself up in Utica, where he meditated a brave resistance; but, finding it impossible to animate men to be free who seemed naturally prone to slavery, he determined not to survive the liberties of his country, and deliberately fell by his own hand. Thus died Cato, who, in all but his death, was one of the most faultless

characters recorded in the Roman history. Though severe, he was not cruel; and he was always ready to pardon much greater faults in others than he could forgive in himself.

The war in Africa being terminated by the reduction of Numidia, which was immediately formed into a Roman province, Cæsar returned in triumph to Rome; and, if he had abridged all his former triumphs only to increase the splendour of this, the citizens were astonished at the magnificence of the procession, and the number of the countries which he had subdued. The senate and Roman people seemed eager only to find out new modes of homage, and unusual epithets of adulation. He was made dictator for ten years, and entrusted with the command in chief of all the armies of the State. He was also honoured with precedence at all public festivals, and created censor for three years with the title of *magister morum*, or master of the morals. His person was declared sacred; and by the acts of the senate already mentioned, on him alone devolved for life all the great dignities of the state. He committed the power of judicature to the senators and the knights alone, and restrained the luxuries of the rich by sumptuary laws.

Having thus settled affairs at Rome, he found himself obliged to go into Spain, where the two sons of Pompey, and Labienus, his former general, had raised an army against him. He met them at Munda, and the battle which followed, decided the fate of the adherents of Pompey. The elder Pompey, whose talents and filial love were remarkable, was killed in the pursuit; and the second concealed himself so completely, that the victor could not discover him.

Cæsar having by this decisive battle vanquished all his Roman enemies, returned to Rome, for the last time, where he received new dignities and honours, and enjoyed in his own person an accumulation of all the great offices of the state, being styled Imperator, a title somewhat akin to that of Emperor, although it did not at that time imply regal power, created consul for ten years and dictator for life. He possessed the emblems also of sovereignty, a throne and diadem, but these were merely exhibited at public festivals, and not used by Cæsar himself. A body-guard of knights and senators was provided for him, and he was entitled *Pater Patriæ*, the father of his country. He reformed the calendar, adorned Rome with magnificent

buildings ; rebuilt Carthage and Corinth ; and undertook to drain the Pontine marshes near Rome.

The senate, with an adulation which marked the degeneracy of the times, continued from time to time to load him with fresh honours, which he received with equal vanity. But having neglected to rise from his seat one day, when the senate ordered him some particular honours, it began to be

**44** rumoured that he intended to make himself king,  
and that the ides of March (March 15) were fixed  
**B.C.** on for investing him with the diadem. A con-

spiracy was, therefore, formed against him by sixty of the senators, at the head of whom were Cassius and Brutus, whose life Cæsar had spared after Pharsalia.

In order to give a colour of justice to their proceedings, the conspirators delayed the execution of their designs to the ides of March, on which Cæsar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and several omens which happened about this time, in some measure, began to change his intention of attending the senate. However, one of the conspirators prevailed on him to keep his resolution, by bantering his superstition, and describing the preparations made for his appearance. As he proceeded to the senate, a slave wished to inform him of the conspiracy, but could not come near him for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, delivered to him a memorial, which Cæsar gave to his secretaries without reading it.

Cæsar, after taking his seat in the senate-house, was suddenly attacked by the conspirators, against whose daggers he bravely defended himself for some time, till seeing Brutus in the number he faintly exclaimed, "And you too, my son!" and covering his face with his robe, resigned himself to his fate. Thus died Cæsar in the fifty-sixth year of his age, after receiving twenty-three wounds from hands, which he vainly supposed had been disarmed by his benefits, or awed by his power.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Defeat of Pompey's Party in Africa .....	B.C. 47	Overthrow of Pompey's party in Spain .....	B.C. 46
Suicide of Cato at Utica...	" 47	Cæsar created Dictator for life .....	" 45
Cæsar created Dictator for ten years .....	" 46	Murder of Cæsar ... March	" 44

## CHAPTER XVII.]

FROM THE DEATH OF CÆSAR TO THE ESTABLISHMENT OF  
THE EMPIRE.

44 B.C. to 27 B.C.

## 1. CÆSAR'S ADOPTED SON—THE SECOND TRIUMVIRATE.

THE death of Cæsar excited in the minds of the Roman people horror and detestation against his murderers. Marc Antony and Lepidus, ambitious of succeeding to the power of the dictator, resolved to endeavour to obtain it by avenging his death. Accordingly, Antony, after reading to the people the will of Cæsar, by which he had bequeathed them a great part of his property, made an oration over the bleeding body, exposed in the Forum, and so inflamed the minds of the populace, that the murderers of Cæsar would have met with instant destruction, had they not precipitately escaped from the city. Antony, who had excited this flame in order to convert it to his own advantage, having gained the people by his zeal in the cause of Cæsar, endeavoured to bring over the senate by a seeming concern for the freedom of the state. He demanded and obtained a guard for the security of his person, and every day continued to make rapid strides to absolute power.

Antony, however, found a formidable competitor in the youthful Caius Octavius, afterwards called Caius Julius Cæsar Octavianus, the son of Caius Octavius and Cæsar's niece Atia, the daughter of his younger sister Julia. He was, therefore, Cæsar's grandnephew, and changed his name as above, according to the common custom among the Romans, because Cæsar had adopted him as his heir. Urged by his mother to return to Rome from Apollonia, where he had been sent by Cæsar to complete his studies, he came back at this critical period, when Antony was busily intriguing to secure supreme power in Rome for himself. Soon after his return, the State was divided into three distinct factions: that of Octavian, who aimed at procuring the power that his great-uncle had exercised in Rome, and revenging his death; that of Antony, whose sole view was to obtain absolute power for himself;

and that of the conspirators, who wished to re-establish the liberty of Rome.

The first thing done by Cæsar's heir, after his return to Rome, was to take the necessary steps for establishing his

**44** claims in this capacity, and to procure a decree  
 B.C. sanctioning his adoption. He then assumed the name, Caius Julius Cæsar Octavianus, to which he

had become entitled by law, and proceeded to carry out the provisions of Cæsar's will, selling his own property, and borrowing money to enable him to pay off all the legacies. This act secured Octavian's popularity at Rome, for Cæsar had left 300 sesterces\* to every Roman citizen, and his gardens beyond the Tiber for a public park. Overtures for a political alliance seem to have been made by Antony to Octavian soon after the return of the latter, for the purpose of crushing the men who had murdered Cæsar; but Octavian possibly expected when this was done that Antony would turn against him, so he took part with the senate, and Cicero, who was doing all he could at Rome to effect the ruin of Cæsar's would-be successor. The close of the year saw Antony in arms, besieging Brutus, who had the province of Cisalpine Gaul, in Mutina, now Modena; hoping, by defeating him, to win his troops over to his side, and thus to place himself at the head of an army sufficient in number to warrant him in marching on Rome, and measuring his strength against that of Octavian and the senate; for Octavian had also been raising troops from among his uncle's veterans in his own behalf; and the senate, finding that he had already placed himself at the head of a considerable force, was compelled to accept his offer to act against Antony.

In the following year, as soon as the consuls, Caius Vibius Pansa, and Aulus Hirtius, entered on their term of office,

**43** they marched against Antony at the head of Octavian's levies, Octavian himself accompanying the  
 B.C. latter as his legate, or second in command. Both consuls fell in battle, and Octavian assumed command of the troops. Antony withdrew his defeated army into Transalpine Gaul, to join Lepidus, who was there at the head of a considerable body of troops, and Brutus followed him, and

\* A sum of £2 8s. 5½d. in our money, the sesterce being equal to ½d.



acted a junction with the troops under Plancus stationed the Isara or Isère. The senate and Cicero now began to r the intentions of Octavian, who was at the head of a midable army devoted to him on account of his relation- p to their old general. The command of the fleet was en to Sextus Pompeius, the son of Pompey. Decimus atus was thanked for showing a firm front to Antony, and the defeat of Antony's troops by those which were serving der Octavian; and the armies in the eastern provinces re placed under the command of Marcus Brutus and Cas- s. A triumph for the defeat of Antony, and the consul- p for the remainder of the year was refused to Octavian, so promptly marched on Rome, after coming to a secret derstanding with Antony, for whom, as well as his fol- vers, Octavian had asked an amnesty. On arriving before e city, he was received with acclamations by the people; e majority of the senators went out to meet him, and the etors joined the forces under their command to his. The ent proceedings of the senate were annulled; Octavian s appointed consul, with his cousin, Quintus Pedius, for e colleague; Brutus, Cassius, and the murderers of Cæsar re declared outlaws; and an amnesty for Antony and idius, and the troops under them, was declared. It is ost needless to say, that, before Octavian entered the city, ero, and many of the senators who had previously declared inst him, had left Rome in headlong flight.

Antony and Lepidus now commenced their march home- rds, and Plancus gave in his adhesion to Octavian. Deci- s Brutus attempted to march eastwards through Cisalpine ul, to join Marcus Brutus in Macedonia, but his men erted him, and he himself was seized and put to death by ler of Antony. Octavian, Antony, and Lepidus met soon er near Bologna, and formed the coalition known in history the Second Triumvirate.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

rival of Octavian in		Action of the Senate	
Rome .....	B.C. 44	against Octavian .....	B.C. 43
Brutus besieged by An-		Octavian enters Rome—	
tony in Modena .....	" 44	Outlawry of Cæsar's mur-	
derers .....		derers .....	Sept. " 43
Antony defeated before		Formation of the Second	
Modena by the Consuls		Triumvirate .....	" 43
and Octavian .....	" 43		

2. THE NEW PROSCRIPTIONS—DEATH OF CICERO—  
BATTLE OF PHILIPPI.

The result of the conference of Octavian, Antony, and Lepidus, was an agreement that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands for the space of five years; **43** that the provinces of the empire should be divided **B.C.** among them; and that all their enemies should be destroyed, of which each presented a list. Lepidus and Plautus were appointed consuls for the ensuing year; for, although the Triumvirate had assumed supreme power, and intended to exercise it, it was thought better that the external forms of the chief magistracy of Rome, with regard to the provinces, Africa, Sicily, and Sardinia, were assigned to Octavian; Spain and Gallia Provincia, now as frequently called Gallia Narbonensis, to Lepidus; and Cisalpine and Transalpine Gaul to Antony. The personal alliance of Octavian and Antony was cemented by the marriage of the former to the latter's daughter. By the last article of their union, which deserves the bitterest execration, Lepidus gave up his brother Paulus to the vengeance of his colleague; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle Lucius; and Augustus, to his eternal infamy, sacrificed the immortal Cicero. Under this horrible proscription, three hundred senators and two thousand knights were put to death!

In the horrid carnage that marked the first weeks of the existence of the Second Triumvirate, Cicero was one of those principally sought after. For some time he evaded the malice of his pursuers; and set forward from his villa at Tusculum towards the sea-side, with an intent to transport himself directly out of the reach of his enemies. He found a vessel ready, and presently embarked; but the winds being adverse, he was obliged to land and spend the night on shore. The importunity of his servants forced him again on board; but, weary of life, and declaring that he was resolved to die in that country which he had so often saved, soon went on shore, and proceeded to one of his country seats in the vicinity. Here he slept soundly for some time; but his servants having heard that he was pursued, once more forced him away in a litter towards the ship. They were scarcely departed when the assassins arrived at his house, and, perceiving him to be fled, pursued him immediately towards the sea, and

bertook him in a wood near the shore. They cut off his head and his hands, which they carried to Rome as the most precious present to Antony, their cruel employer, who received them with extreme joy, rewarded the murderer with a large sum of money, and placed Cicero's head on the rostrum, whence he had often declaimed against tyranny and oppression. Thus died Cicero, in the sixty-third year of his age; but not until he had seen his country ruined before him.

Brutus and Cassius, the principal conspirators against Caesar, after being driven from Rome, went into Greece, and persuaded the Roman students at Athens to declare in the cause of freedom. Then parting, the former raised a powerful army in Macedonia, and the adjacent countries; while the latter went into Syria, where he soon mustered twelve legions. In short, they soon found themselves at the head of a flourishing army, and in a condition to support a contest, where the empire of the world depended on the event. This astonishing success in raising levies was entirely owing to the justice, moderation, and humanity of Brutus, who seemed desirous of nothing but the happiness of his country.

Antony and Octavian having advanced into Macedonia, Brutus and his colleague passed over into Thrace, and arrived at the city of Philippi, near which the decrees of the triumvirs were posted. The empire of the world once more depended on the fate of a battle; and all mankind regarded the approaching armies with terror and anxiety. Brutus was the only man who viewed these great events with calmness and tranquillity. "If I gain the victory," said he, "I shall restore liberty to my country; if I lose it, by dying, I shall be delivered from slavery myself: my condition is fixed; I run no risk."

The republican army consisted of 80,000 foot and 20,000 horse; whilst that of the triumviri amounted to 100,000 foot and 13,000 horse. Thus prepared on each side, they met and encamped near Philippi, a city on the confines of Thrace, situated upon a mountain, towards the west of which a plain stretched itself, by a gentle declivity, almost fifteen leagues to the banks of the river Strymon. In this plain, about two miles from the town, were two little hills at a mile distant from each other, defended on one side by mountains, and on the other by a marsh which communicated with the sea.

Upon these two hills, Brutus and Cassius fixed their camps, between which was kept a firm communication, and which mutually defended each other. In this commodious situation, which enabled them to give or decline battle, as they thought fit, the sea furnished them with all kinds of provisions, and the island of Thasos, at twelve miles distance, served them for a general magazine. On the other hand, Antony and Octavian were encamped on the plain below, and obliged to bring their provisions from a distance of fifteen leagues; and it was, therefore, their interest to hasten an engagement. This they offered several times; but the patriots contented themselves with drawing up their troops at the head of their camps, without descending into the plain. At length, Brutus, beginning to suspect the fidelity of some of his officers, used all his influence to persuade Cassius to engage the enemy; and, at last, both armies, in attempting to possess themselves of the road which led towards the island of Thasos, were drawn to a general engagement, in which the troops under Octavian were defeated by the soldiers of Brutus, while those under Antony had driven back the legions commanded by Cassius. Dispirited and unaware of the success of Brutus, Cassius hastened to his tent and ordered his freedman Pindarus to dispatch him. Twenty days after the first battle, which was a drawn one, Brutus finding his army fast melting away by disease and desertion, led out the remnant to attack the camp of his opponents. After a hard fought battle the republican troops were defeated, and Brutus losing all hope of renewing the contest, followed the example of Cassius and killed himself. It is reported that Brutus, while at Sardis, beheld a gigantic figure, with a frightful aspect, stand before him at midnight, and that the spectre said, "I am thy evil genius, and thou shalt see me again at Philippi." With the death of Brutus and Cassius, who escaped the vengeance of the conquerors by a voluntary death, expired all hopes of the restoration of liberty in Rome. Indeed, the Roman Republic which had existed through so many changes of fortune may be said to have come to an end, virtually, on the battle-field of Philippi.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Proscription and Reign of Terror in Rome .....	B.C. 43	{ The Republicans defeated at Philippi .....	B.C. 42
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3. THE ADMINISTRATION OF THE TRIUMVIRATE—BATTLE OF  
ACTIUM.

The triumvirs now became irresistible, and, after this decisive battle, punished those whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. The people chiefly lamented to see the head of Brutus sent to Rome to be thrown at the foot of Caesar's statue. The power of the triumvirs being thus established on the ruin of the commonwealth, Antony went over into Greece, and thence passed into Asia, where all the monarchs of the East, who acknowledged the dominion of Rome, came to pay him their obedience, or court his smiles. In this manner he proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a crowd of sovereigns, exacting contributions, distributing favours, and disposing of crowns with capricious insolence. But among all the sovereigns of the East, none had such a distinguished place in his regard as Cleopatra, queen of Egypt, who, having received orders from Antony to clear herself of some slight imputation of infidelity to his cause, so captivated him with her beauty and address, that abandoning business to satisfy his passion, he followed her into Egypt. 41  
B.C.

He remained for some time in this country, indulging in the most vicious refinement of voluptuous pleasure; but Octavian having excited the jealousy of Antony's adherents by the distribution of certain lands, he left Egypt to oppose Octavian in person. A reconciliation, however, being effected, all offences and affronts were mutually forgiven, and, to cement the union, a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Octavian. By a new division of the Roman empire, Octavian was to have the command of the West; Antony, of the East; and Lepidus, of the provinces in Africa. 40  
B.C.

This was caused by a suspicion that Lepidus, dissatisfied with the nominal power that fell to his share, was intriguing with Sextus Pompeius to obtain the overthrow of his associates in the triumvirate. Sextus Pompeius was now at the head of a powerful fleet in the Mediterranean, and had taken possession of Sicily, and as it was necessary that he should be conciliated or destroyed, Octavian undertook to prosecute a war against him, while Antony marched against the king of Parthia, who had overrun Syria with his troops, and had

placed Antigonus, the surviving son of Aristobulus, on the throne of Jerusalem. Antony, however, lingered in Italy during the following year, and before he left for the East, a reconciliation had been effected between the triumvirs and Sextus Pompeius who was bought over by the assignment to him of Sicily. The provinces of Corsica, Sardinia, and Achaia, with compensation for the property that had been confiscated at his father's death and an amnesty for his followers, the murderers of Cæsar only being excepted.

Antony then sailed for Athens on his way to Syria, but while he was passing the winter there, his lieutenant Ventidius, to whom he had confided the conduct of the war against the Parthians, drove the invaders back across the Euphrates, and in the following spring defeated them with terrible loss at Charrhæ. Antigonus then made his submission to Antony, who spent the summer in Syria and then returned to Athens.

The struggle between Octavian and Sextus Pompeius had commenced anew, and Antony sailed to Italy to assist Octavian against him. The triumvirate was now renewed for a second term of five years, and

Antony having furnished Octavian with part of his fleet in return for which he was supplied with soldiers, once more returned to the East to prosecute a war of conquest against Parthia. Sextus Pompeius was totally defeated at sea by Octavian's admiral, Marcus Vipsanius Agrippa, and fled to the East, where he fell into Antony's hands in the following year and was put to death.

To show how little dependence could be placed in those days on one another, even by men supposed to be united by the strictest bonds either of relationship or political alliance, or both together, it may be said that Lepidus, who had been engaged with Agrippa in the siege of Messana, into which Plennius, the lieutenant of Sextus Pompeius, had thrown himself, accepted Plennius's offer to surrender the city and divide the spoil of it with him. When Lepidus entered the city the garrison hailed him as Imperator, and this tempted him to endeavour to hold Sicily for himself. But when Octavian arrived they hailed him as readily with the same title, and left Lepidus to swell the ranks of the new comer's army. For his treachery, Octavian expelled Lepidus from

the triumvirate and placed him under restraint in the island of Circeum, where he died, 13 B.C.

Antony, who had stayed in Egypt on his way to Syria, now alone remained to prevent Augustus from attaining sovereign and undivided power; and his character and conduct greatly facilitated the designs which his ambitious rival had conceived against him. Regardless of the business of the state, he seemed to live only to pleasure, and spent whole days and nights in the company of Cleopatra, who studied every art to increase his passion, and vary his entertainments.

It was some months before he could tear himself away from the fascinations of the beautiful queen of Egypt and march against the foe. At last, however, he entered Media in company with Artavasdes, the king of Armenia, and laid siege to Praaspa. There the Armenian king deserted him, and the Parthians coming against him in myriads, forced him back through Armenia into Syria with the loss of 8,000 men.

Another year was spent at Alexandria in idle pleasure with Cleopatra, before Antony roused himself once more to try to retrieve his fortunes in the East. Entering Armenia suddenly and unexpectedly he fell on Artavasdes before he was prepared to receive him, besieged his capital, took him prisoner, and plundered his country, and then returned almost as rapidly as he had come to hold a triumph for his nominal subjection of Armenia in Alexandria. Far different had been the conduct of Octavian during Antony's absence. He had beautified Rome with magnificent buildings, and carried out the construction of roads, sewers, aqueducts, baths, and other great public works, and undertaken a successful campaign against the tribes on the northern frontier of Italy, and added Pannonia, a large tract of country between Dalmatia and the Danube to the Roman dominions. This conquest was effected in 33 B.C.

The final rupture between Octavian and Antony was now at hand, and circumstances soon occurred which tended to hasten it. Stung by Antony's neglect of his sister Octavia—his insult, for in 35 B.C. when she was on her way to Syria ringing him arms and men and money for the war against Parthia, and wrote to him from Athens saying she was on her way to join him, he contemptuously replied that she had better stay there—and the preference he showed to the interests of

Egypt and Egypt's queen over those of Rome, Octavian sought to recall him to a sense of duty. Antony retorted by prompting the consuls for the year, who were his partisans, to make an attack on Octavian in the Senate.

**32** Octavian, surrounded by a body of friends, who  
B.C. were all secretly armed to defend him in case the consuls should follow up their words with hostile acts, replied, speaking in bitter terms of Antony and his friends. The consuls hastened to Antony, but when the Romans who were with him heard that the alliance between Octavian and Antony was at an end, they hastened to Rome to support the former. True to the policy that he had announced of avoiding civil strife he declared war against Cleopatra. Antony hastened to take up the gage that was thus thrown down, and placed himself in direct antagonism to Rome by declaring himself the ally, supporter, and defender of the Egyptian queen. He contrived also to offer a last bitter insult to Octavian by divorcing his wife Octavia, and ordering her to quit his house in Rome. The time for which the second triumvirate had been renewed had now expired, and the famous coalition which had endured for ten years, was now a thing of the past without possibility of renewal.

Immediately after war was formally declared, both sides began to make immense preparations for the conflict. Antony

**31** indeed was followed by all the forces of the East,  
B.C. and Octavian by those of the West. Antony, who had decided on risking his future fate and fortune on a sea fight, stationed his magnificent fleet of 500 vessels at the entrance of the Gulf of Ambracia, now the Bay of Prevesa, and posted his army of 100,000 men in an entrenched camp on the promontory of Actium on the northern side. Octavian landed his army on the southern side of the strait leading into the gulf within about the middle of August, but it was not until the beginning of September that the memorable battle of Actium was fought. Antony, by the advice of Cleopatra, who wished him to return at once to Egypt and leave the army to fight or surrender as it might choose, had moved out of the gulf and ranged his fleet at the entrance to the strait, and was waiting for a favourable opportunity to set sail. His intention was frustrated by the Roman fleet which bore down on Antony's vessels with a favourable breeze in order of battle, and Antony was compelled to fight.



armies, on opposite sides of the gulf, were only of the engagement, and encouraged their respective sides. In the midst of the conflict the wind suddenly changed, and the queen's galley made for the open sea by the whole of the Egyptian fleet, and Antony, Roman, preferring dishonour to death, followed her in a light galley, leaving his fleet at the mercy of the enemy. All the vessels that could not escape fought it out, and disdaining to surrender were fired by the enemy to the night fall. The army, after a delay of seven days, fled to Octavian without striking a blow.

Spending the winter in re-organizing the provinces of the East, Octavian advanced with an army of 30 legions, of which the governor of the city, P. Ventidius Crescens, B.C. 30, was the commander.

Not finding courage to defend it, or previously having been persuaded by Cleopatra to give it up, he permitted her to take it without resistance; and Octavian having no further business in his way to Alexandria, marched thither with all his army. Upon his arrival, Antony sallied out to oppose him, but put the enemy's cavalry to flight; and this slight success once more revived his declining hopes, and determined him to make a resolute and final effort both by land

and sea. On the day of day, Antony posted the few troops that he had upon a rising ground near the city, and sent orders to his legions to engage the enemy. He waited with his army in the harbour, and at first had the satisfaction to see, them in good order; but his joy was soon turned into rage, when he saw that the ships only saluted those of Octavian, and both fleets together, sailed back into the harbour. At the same time his cavalry also deserted to the enemy. However, he led on his infantry, which were easily vanquished; and he himself was compelled to return into the town. His army was ungovernable, and he cried out in an agony, that he was betrayed by Cleopatra: and, in fact, his suspicions for it was by the secret orders of the queen that he had passed over to Octavian.

Antony was now so humbled, that he only desired of the gods that his life might be spared, and that he might be permitted to pass the remainder of his days in obscurity. To his proposals, however, Octavian sent no answer, and Antony, having received a false report that Cleopatra was

dead, stabbed himself with his sword, and expired soon after. Cleopatra endeavoured to propitiate Octavian who had entered Alexandria as a conqueror on August 1, but finding that he intended to lead her as a captive in his triumph, she procured her death on August 30 by an asp, as it was reported, which was conveyed to her in a basket of figs.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Fresh partition of the Roman Provinces .....	B.C. 40	Renewed Invasion of Armenia by Antony .....	B.C. 34
The Parthians defeated by Ventidius at Charrhæ...	" 38	Subjugation of Pannonia by Octavian .....	" 33
Sextus Pompeius in arms in Sicily .....	" 37	Quarrel between Octavian and Antony, who remains in Egypt with Cleopatra .....	" 33
Renewal of the Triumvirate for five years .....	" 37	Antony divorces Octavia, Octavian's sister .....	" 33
Defeat of Sextus Pompeius, who goes to the East...	" 36	Declaration of war against Cleopatra—Antony resolves to support her ...	" 33
Exclusion of Lepidus from the Triumvirate .....	" 36	Battle of Actium ... Aug.	" 31
Antony's Invasion of Media, and forced Retreat.	" 35	Invasion of Egypt by Octavian—Death of Cleopatra and Antony. Aug.	" 30
Capture of Sextus Pompeius by Antony, and his death .....	" 35		

## 4. THE ESTABLISHMENT OF THE EMPIRE.

By the death of Antony, Octavian was rendered the master of the Roman dominions, the sole arbiter of the great metropolis of the world as known to the Romans, her people, her provinces, and all that belonged to her. The external forms of government, as adopted in the early days of the Republic, were still in existence, it is true; but even these were on the point of falling into desuetude, to be superseded by other forms and titles that surely marked the extinction of the Republic, and the birth of the Empire. The period of transition from Republicanism to Imperialism was that which extended from 48 to 31 B.C., from the defeat of Pompey at Pharsalia to the defeat of Antony at Actium. Four years only were now required to complete the work, and one of these had already expired when Antony and Cleopatra died at Alexandria, shortly after the occupation of the city by Octavian.

st care of Octavian at this period was the settle-  
Egypt. This, however, he did not make a Roman  
in the strict sense of the word, under the  
ant of a proconsul, and subject to the  
out he made it subject to his own imme-  
trol, a step which shows that Octavian already felt  
o be possessed of absolute power in reality, if not

30

B.C.

Egypt, in fact, became the first of the provinces  
the "provinces of Cæsar," and was governed by a  
r, answerable for his conduct to Octavian only. In  
ey homeward Octavian first passed through Judea,  
confirmed Herod's title to the throne, which Antony  
wed on him; and then went onward to Asia Minor,  
passed the winter.

summer of the following year he returned to Rome,  
d been happily governed during his absence by his  
d minister, Caius Cilnius Mæcenas. He entered  
d of the Roman territories amid the shouts  
ople, who received him with a welcome  
is it was hearty and heartfelt. To do him

29

B.C.

he senate decreed that he should always appear in  
worn by a successful general at his triumphs for  
gained over the foe, and that his name should be  
on the standards of the legions. Even more than  
n, in the religious ceremonies of the state, suppli-  
is made to the deities of Rome for the welfare of  
e and the people, Octavian's name was never to be  
. He was also named Imperator and censor for life,  
the supreme command of the army, or military  
s, as the Romans called it.

positively possessed of absolute power, being recog-  
the head of the state, and commander-in-chief of the  
the state, Octavian turned his attention to the re-  
ion of the senate, receiving the privilege, which had  
belonged to the senate alone, of raising plebeians to  
rank. Here, then, was another important attribute  
ignty—the bestowal of rank and honour at plea-  
nd if as to exalt Octavian still more in

28

B.C.

of the people, the senate gave him the  
"Princeps Senatus," or chief of the senate,  
ich we obtain our term "prince." Octavian now  
o resign the *imperium*, or chief command of the

armies of the state into the hands of the senate; but the senators, assured that his was the master mind and the master hand that could alone preserve peace and settled order in Rome and her provinces, and secure her against the repetition of civil war, begged him to retain it for ten years at least, and conferred on him the additional name of AUGUSTUS. The investment of the head of the state with supreme power for ten years, was almost equivalent to an appointment for life; and it was so virtually, for the senate never took it back. In addition to this, the bestowal of a distinctive name and titles of honour on Octavian, hereafter to be known in history as Augustus, the establishment of a guard for the protection of his person, and the adoption of every possible measure that could exalt him in the eyes of the people, showed, that although Augustus was not a king in name, he was possessed of power absolute and kingly; that the age of the REPUBLIC had passed indeed, and that the era of the EMPIRE had arrived.

The history of the Roman Empire, which is well nigh the history of the world as long as it endured, and which, although it is comprised in Ancient History, forms the link that binds Ancient and Modern History together, will be found in the Fourth Volume of this Series.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Return of Octavian to Rome from Egypt and the East .....	B.C. 29	The name of Augustus conferred on Octavian, and the establishment of the Empire under him .....	B.C. 27
Egypt made one of Caesar's provinces .....	„ 30		

THE END.

**ANCIENT HISTORY.**  
A SYNOPSIS OF  
**THE RISE, PROGRESS, DECLINE, AND FALL**  
OF THE  
**States and Nations of Antiquity.**

BY  
**REV. JOHN ROBINSON**  
AND  
**FRANCIS YOUNG.**

*In Four Volumes.*

**VOL. IV.**  
**A HISTORY OF ROME.**  
**THE EMPIRE.**

**WITH SYNOPSIS OF EARLY HISTORY OF EUROPEAN TRIBES  
AND STATES.**



**LONDON:**  
**T. J. ALLMAN, 463, OXFORD STREET.**  
**1873.**



## INTRODUCTION.

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ANCIENT HISTORY, which commences with the creation of the World, an event that took place in 4004 B.C., according to the most commonly received system of chronology, is generally considered to terminate with the fall of the Western Empire, in 476 A.D. Mediæval History then begins, which terminates about the end of the fifteenth century, and forms the connecting link between Ancient and Modern History.

The first portion of Ancient History, the principal events of which are recorded in clear but simple language in Genesis, the first book of the Bible, ends with the Confusion of Tongues and the dispersion of the nations at Babel.

When different groups of men of diverse languages were thus constituted, each withdrew itself from the others to as great a distance as circumstances would permit; and, wandering eastward, westward, northward, and southward, these germs of future nationalities founded cities and formed settlements which in course of time developed, in some instances, into great nations and monarchies.

Of these, Egypt is considered to be the most ancient; and after considering the origin of man and the story of the great patriarchs of old, as far as we have been permitted to know it, precedence will be given in the following pages to the History of Egypt; and after a brief notice of the tribes of Canaan and the surrounding districts, and Arabia, the History of the Jews—the great God-favoured nation that descended from Abraham—will claim attention.

Next in order will follow accounts of the Chaldean, Assyrian, and Babylonian Empires, and the Empire of the Medes and Persians; and then, in due chronological course, the story, first, of the Grecian, and then of the Roman Empire. This, however, must be told at length in other volumes of the series, and at present it is merely necessary to direct the attention of the reader to this fact. With a brief history of Syria, Parthia, and Persia, and some notice of Carthage and the chief states of Northern Africa, as known to the ancients, this volume will terminate.





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With reference to the contents of the four volumes of this series, in which the entire range of Ancient History is comprised, it may be as well to state that—

Vol. I. is devoted to a consideration of the chief States of Africa and South-Western Asia as known to the ancients, and comprises the Early History of Man, and the History of Egypt, the Jews, Chaldea, Assyria, Babylonia, Media, Persia, Syria, Parthia, and Carthage and the states of North-Western Africa.

Vol. II. contains the History of Greece, the Greek Colonies in Asia Minor, Sicily and the Coast of the Mediterranean Sea, with Pontus, Cappadocia, Pergamus, Armenia, and the countries contiguous to Asia Minor not treated in Vol. I.

Vol. III. contains the History of Rome as a Kingdom and Republic, and the series of struggles by which it became the arbiter of the Western World, from the Straits of Gibraltar, or Pillars of Hercules, to the Euphrates.

Vol. IV. contains the History of Rome as an Empire, and its subdivisions, the Western Empire and the Eastern Empire. This volume will also comprise as much Mediæval History as relates to the Eastern Empire, from the fall of the Western Empire to its own dissolution, and some account of the powerful tribes of Northern and Central Europe, that so often carried death and destruction into and through the Southern part of the Continent.

The subject matter in each volume has been broken into chapters and sections, and each section is followed by a Chronological Summary of the dates of the principal events to which allusion is made in the section.

The compiler has to express his obligations for the assistance derived from Smith's "Ancient History" and Rawlinson's "Five Great Monarchies" and "Sixth Oriental Monarchy."

LONDON, 1873.

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# HISTORY OF ROME.

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## The Empire.

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### CHAPTER I.

#### LIMITS AND DIVISIONS OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

##### THE IMPERIAL POWER.—IMPERIAL AND SENATORIAL PROVINCES.

AGE of government so vast and so complete as that was effected at Rome, when the sceptre of the Cæsars took the place of the fasces of the consuls, and direct personal authority unlimited in duration, was substituted for authority delegated by the people for the brief space of a year, affords a fitting halting place to pause awhile, and in the vast territorial expanse of the mighty empire, finding its germ in the small free state established by Romulus on the Palatine Hill, hard by the "yellow Tiber," grown to such gigantic dimensions in little more than six centuries, as to overshadow with its power the whole then known world, and include within its bounds the whole of Southern and Central Europe, South-Western Asia, and Northern Africa.

Augustus, formerly Octavian, though he may be considered as having acquired sovereign power immediately after the battle of Actium, commenced to reign in the year 27 B.C., when the name of Augustus was conferred on him by the senate. At this is the most convenient period for dating the commencement of his reign, when he was fairly acknowledged as the first man in the state by the senate and the people. He had already received the command-in-chief of the armies, and was bound in person to superintend or provide for his lieutenants, the carrying on of the wars on which the empire might find it necessary to enter. A body-

guard was assigned to him for the protection of his person : distinctive names were applied to him, which afterwards became the appellations of his successors on the imperial throne ; he was entitled by law to assume a dress and ornaments which were nothing more or less than the insignia of royalty and the emblems of supreme authority ; and what could be wanted in addition to constitute an absolute government as actual, and power as positive as that wielded by any autocrat

27 of modern times. We may consider him from this  
B.C. point as the head and centre of the government of the empire, the source of dignity and honour, and the arbiter of the destinies of the empire. The forms of the republic still lived, it is true, but they existed only in name. Augustus was absolute, he felt himself to be so, and he did not seek to disguise it.

There was nothing, perhaps, which indicated the completeness of the revolution that had led to and confirmed the establishment of imperial institutions at Rome, than the allotment of the provinces of which the empire consisted. Heretofore the conduct of wars in provinces not wholly subdued, or in those which happened to be the seat of strife, was entrusted to the consuls or men of consular rank, who had but recently held office, while those in which the work of subjugation or pacification had been wholly affected, were placed under the management of prætors and quæstors. Now the provinces which had been entirely subdued were styled the "provinces of the senate and the Roman people ;" while those in which war had recently been carried on, or in which war might be expected, were termed the "provinces of Cæsar," or imperial provinces. The management of the former was assigned by the senate to men of prætorian rank, members of that body, who bore the title of proconsul. Each proconsul was assisted by one or more quæstors, who regulated the financial government, and all these officers were nominally answerable to the senate as heretofore. The imperial provinces, as they may be fairly termed, were governed by imperial legates or lieutenants, appointed by the emperor, while the finances were controlled by officers named procurators, who were either freedmen of the emperor, or men of equestrian rank. The provinces of the senate were Numidia, Africa (the old territory of Carthage Proper), and the Cyrenaica in Northern Africa, the last named province being



united to the island of Crete ; Asia and Bithynia, with Pontus in Asia Minor ; Achaia with Epirus, Dalmatia, Macedonia, Sicily, Sardinia, and Hispania Bætica, or Southern Spain, in Europe. To these Augustus subsequently added Gallia Narbonensis, or Southern Gaul, and Cyprus, taking away Dalmatia. The imperial provinces at the establishment of the empire were Egypt in Africa ; Cyprus, Cilicia, Syria, Cœle-Syria, and Phœnicia in Asia ; and Lusitania, or Western Spain, Hispania Tarraconensis, or Northern and Eastern Spain, and all the divisions of Gaul, namely, Gallia Belgica, Gallia Celtica, Aquitania, and Gallia Narbonensis in Europe. All these provinces were governed by a legate or lieutenant. Judea, which really formed part of Syria, was governed by a procurator, who had all the authority of a legate within his district. These provinces, senatorial and imperial, as given in detail by Dion Cassius, exhibit the great divisions of the Roman empire and the limits to which it had attained at the accession of Augustus.

## CHAPTER II.

### THE CÆSAREAN DYNASTY.

48 B.C. to 68 A.D.

#### 1. AUGUSTUS.

THE early emperors of Rome are commonly spoken of collectively as the "Twelve Cæsars." Of these Julius Cæsar is accounted the first, and Domitian is the last. Now as all the emperors of Rome were Cæsars—the family name of a powerful Roman family having ultimately developed into a title of honour—it may be fairly asked why the first twelve of the Roman emperors are grouped together as the "Twelve Cæsars ?" The best reason that can be given is that the hereditary principle of succession was acknowledged and observed, with a short break, until the close of the reign of Domitian, and that the dignity of emperor was then rendered elective and dependent on the will of the senate.

It has been insisted on that the empire was not fairly established in Rome until the commencement of 27 B.C., and hence arises a second inquiry why Julius Cæsar should be

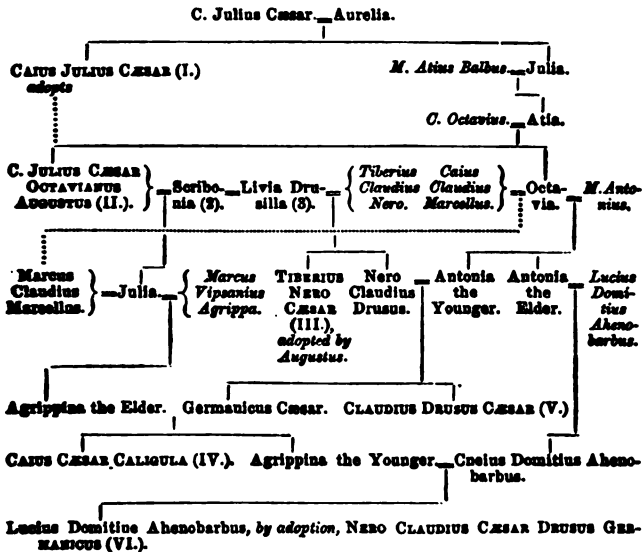
accounted the first of the "Twelve Cæsars?" It must be remembered that Julius Cæsar had in reality inaugurated imperial rule in Rome, and gathered the sole power of the state into his own hands, although imperialism was not openly acknowledged as an accomplished fact until the date which has been named. Four years before his assassination in 44 B.C., Julius Cæsar had been created dictator for life, and was virtually possessed of sovereign power, although its external emblems were denied to him. As the founder of absolute power and personal government in Rome, he was justly reckoned the first of the Cæsars by Roman historians, and his claim to be looked on as the first emperor of Rome is strengthened by the fact that the Romans recognised as his successor his great nephew, Octavian, the grandson of his sister Julia, and his son and heir by adoption, according to the Roman law. It was in fact an acknowledgment of the principle of hereditary succession in the highest office of the state, which was preserved throughout the Cæsarean dynasty, and that of the Flavian dynasty, which almost immediately followed it.

As his great uncle Julius, the dictator, is reckoned the first of the Cæsars, Augustus unavoidably takes rank as the second of them, although he was the first who openly used the ensigns of the imperial dignity, by the permission—nay more, request—of the senate. To make his descent perfectly clear, we may point out once more that he was the son of Caius Octavius, who had married Atia, the daughter of Marcus Atius Balbus and Julia, Julius Cæsar's sister. He had been adopted by Julius Cæsar, because he was the nearest male relation that the dictator had. The connection of the members of the Cæsarean dynasty may be seen more clearly by reference to the genealogical table in the following page.

It may, however, be as well to enter here into some account of the family and kinsmen of Augustus before mentioning the principal transactions of his reign. He was married three times, first to Clodia, the daughter of the tribune Clodius, who played so conspicuous a part in the stormy times that preceded the close of the republic; secondly in 40 B.C. to Scribonia, the sister-in-law of Sextus Pompeius, who was divorced shortly after to enable him to marry in 38 B.C. his third wife, Livia Drusilla, the daughter of Livius Drusus Claudianus, and wife of Tiberius Claudius Nero, who was compelled to divorce her when Octavian set his affections on

her. Augustus had no children by her, but he ultimately adopted her son Tiberius Claudius Nero, who became emperor at his death.

### GENEALOGICAL TABLE OF THE CÆSAREAN DYNASTY.



It was not, however, until he found himself deprived of all hope of male descendants in a direct line to inherit his honours, that he formally adopted Tiberius. His sister Octavia, who, it will be remembered, had married Marc Antony, had by him two daughters, Antonia the Elder, and Antonia the Younger. Before her espousal to Antony, she had married Caius Claudius Marcellus, a man of consular rank, by whom she had a son called Marcus Claudius Marcellus. This young man, whose career was cut short by death in 23 B.C., was married by Augustus to Julia, his only child by Scribonia, and was regarded as his successor. As far as human knowledge can determine, his death was a misfortune for Rome. Hoping yet for direct male heirs, Augustus married his daughter a second time in 22 B.C. to Marcus Vipsanius

Agrippa, one of his most intimate friends, and after Maecenas, the most trusted of his ministers. Two sons of this marriage died just after they had reached manhood, and a third, adopted with Tiberius in 4 A.D., was murdered just after the death of Augustus to secure the undisputed right of Tiberius to the throne. It is said that the murder was instigated by Livia, who is not altogether free from suspicion of having hastened her husband's death at the end, that she might see her son invested with the purple. A daughter of Julia and Agrippa, Agrippina the Elder, married Germanicus Caesar, the son of Livia's younger son, Nero Claudius Drusus, and Antonia the Younger, the second daughter of Octavia and Marc Antony. Their son Caius Caesar, surnamed Caligula, was the fourth of the Cæsars, and his uncle Claudius Drusus Caesar, the fifth. Male heirs failing these, the successor of Claudius was found in a youth, Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus, by adoption Claudius Caesar Drusus Germanicus Nero, who was the son of Caligula's sister, Agrippina the Younger and Cneius Domitius Ahenobarbus, who was the offspring of a marriage between Antonia the Elder, daughter of Octavia, and Marc Antony, and Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus.

Having regulated affairs at home, Augustus quitted Rome in 27 B.C., and took the chief command of an expedition designed to reduce the northern parts of Spain to complete submission, leaving Agrippa as his viceroy in Rome. He did not return till 24 B.C., after a serious illness, which kept him nearly two years at Tarraco. Another serious illness followed in 23 B.C., after which he resigned the consulship, which he had now held for nine years; but instead of this, the senate gave him absolute authority over all the province, senatorial as well as imperial, and the officers in the former, though appointed by the senate, were accountable for their acts to the emperor. The military oath of obedience was now taken by the Roman soldiers to the emperor, and not to the state, as heretofore. Soon after, the power hitherto held by the tribunes of the people was vested in Augustus, which made him chief of the people, as well as of the senate and the army. The formal appointment of consuls was still continued; but the disturbances in Rome during the emperor's absence in the east, from 22 B.C. to 19 B.C., led to the bestowal of this office on Augustus for life, and it was then only held for brief periods by those on whom the emperor

might choose to bestow it. In 12 B.C., Lepidus, the chief priest, or pontifex maximus, died, and his office was given to Augustus, who thus became chief of the Roman church as well as the state—if the use of the word “church” may be permitted in the case of a heathen religion for the sake of showing the analogy which then existed between the powers and functions of Augustus, and those of a monarch in the present day, in a country where a monarch is accounted the head of the church, as in the United Kingdom.

The change in the constitution may be shown in a few words. The ancient senate of Romulus was converted into a sort of House of Lords, whose numbers were restricted to 600, with a property qualification of about £10,000 in our money. The senators, it is true, were elected; but the elections were influenced by Augustus in his capacity of censor, and thus none were admitted who were in any way objectionable to him. Soon the elective principle was neglected, and the custom of allowing the sons of senators to sit in the house, which was introduced by Augustus, in imitation of an old custom, gradually paved the way for hereditary succession, and the establishment of a body of Roman princes and nobles. The power of the centuries in confirming laws passed by the senate had long ago been merged in the assemblies, or Comitia of the Tribes, and they merely elected the chief magistrates and adjudicated in cases of appeal. But the appointment of the great officers of state by the emperor took all their remaining functions out of the hands of the centuries; and the assumption of tribunitial power by the emperor soon threw the functions of the tribes into similar desuetude. Thus was the emperor absolute; but in after years, as we shall see, his power and that of the senate, was often controlled, abridged, and frequently annulled by the Prætorian guards, the *élite*—as our household troops are of the British army—of the great standing army of Rome; a body originally instituted to guard the prætorium, or general's tent, and which frequently took the lead in after years, in conjunction with the army, in setting up and dethroning emperors, portions of the soldiery frequently espousing different sides. And thus it was that absolutism and personal government in Rome subsequently merged into a military despotism.

It has been said that Augustus was absent in the East from 22 B.C. to 19 B.C. It was during this expedition, which

was wholly unattended by bloodshed, that he induced Phraates, the king of Parthia, to surrender the Roman standards which had been taken from Crassus, and whose recovery gratified the pride of the Romans as much as any brilliant victory. Agrippa was now sent to the East to control affairs in that direction, and his sons Caius and Lucius, born in 20 B.C. and 17 B.C. respectively, were formally adopted by Augustus. Agrippa's place at Rome was filled by Mæcenas, illustrious as the patron of Horace and Virgil, and the chief promoter of art and literature in the imperial city, and he became the civil governor of Rome in the absence of Augustus, who was compelled to go into Transalpine Gaul in 16 B.C., to regulate the internal affairs of the province, which was suffering under a recent invasion of the Germans and the severe rule of Licinius the procurator. There he remained till 14 B.C., maturing a scheme for strengthening the northern frontier of the empire, from the Rhone to the Danube, connecting the rivers by a chain of military colonies, as frontier outposts.

The frontier on the eastern side of the northern line had not yet been carried to the southern shore of the Danube; but the facilities given by the independence of the tribes that inhabited this district for an invasion of the empire by the savage hordes of the north, rendered necessary the extension of Roman territory to this great river. The first step in carrying out this project was effected by the emperor's step-sons, and Drusus, who, in a single campaign, conquered and annexed Vindelicia and Rætia. Three years after, Agrippa, who had returned from the East and quelled a rising in Pannonia, died, and the emperor compelled Tiberius to divorce Vipsania, the dead man's daughter, and marry his widow Julia, who shortly after gave birth to a posthumous son, whose fate has been already related. The marriage did not prove a happy one, through the flagrant misconduct of Julia on the one hand, and the affection that Tiberius still retained for the woman whom he had been compelled to repudiate (11 B.C.).

At this time Drusus was in Gaul, consolidating the Roman power in that province, and having conceived the idea of conquering Germany and annexing the countries north of the Danube, he prepared for an expedition against the German tribes. He was successful at first, for the Germans, by con-

stantly retreating, avoided a conflict ; but when winter approached, Drusus was compelled to withdraw his troops. Renewing the attempt at a later period, he subdued the Chatti and Cherusci, and penetrated to the Elbe ; but on his return he fell from his horse, and died of the accident, to the deep regret of Augustus and the Roman people. He was designated Germanicus, a name which was in after years accorded to his eldest son. Shortly before his death, Pannonia had been reduced to subjection by Tiberius, and Thracia and Moesia had been conquered by Lucius Piso. Thus was secured the project of Augustus for making the Danube the northern frontier of the empire.

After defeating the Sigambri and other German tribes, who had risen in revolt soon after the death of Drusus, Tiberius retired to Rhodes. His departure from Rome was caused, according to some, by the misconduct of Julia, who was banished by her father at a subsequent period, and died in poverty in 14 A.D. ; and, according to others, by his unwillingness to interfere with the prospects of his step-sons Caius and Lucius Cæsar, who were on the eve of entering public life, and had been adopted as heirs by the emperor. Lucius died of illness at Massilia (2 A.D.), soon after Augustus had summoned Tiberius to return to Rome ; and Caius died of a wound inflicted by treachery at the siege of Artagira, in Armenia, two years later, which country he had entered after undertaking a mission to the East to settle the affairs of Judea and effect a treaty with Parthia.

This took place about eight years after the time in which our Saviour Jesus Christ came into the world, to atone by his blood for the sins of mankind, make a more ample revelation of the will of God, and enjoin by his example the practice of every virtue. He was born at Bethlehem, in Judea, in the seven hundred and forty-ninth year of Rome, the twenty-third of the reign of Augustus, reckoning from 27 B.C., and in the four thousandth year of the world, according to the commonly received system of chronology. The Christian era, however, has been fixed four years later than the time at which the birth of our Lord took place.

The first care of Augustus, on the death of his step-son Caius, was to provide for the succession to the throne ; and, although he was fearful that the gloomy and morose temper of Tiberius would lead him to acts that might be unacceptable

to the people, he found himself unable to select anyone better fitted by age and experience for the post. He, therefore, formally adopted Tiberius as his heir and successor, and obliged him in his turn to adopt Germanicus Cæsar, the son of his brother Drusus. Immediately after this Tiberius was sent into Germany to carry on the war of conquest which had been waged with success since 1 A.D. by Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus. He subdued the country between the lower Rhine and the Weser in 4 and 5 A.D., and was then sent to subdue Marobodunus, a German chief, who was attempting to establish an empire, and had under his command a disciplined army in the country on the north bank of the Danube, now called Bohemia. His first operations were successful, but a revolt of the people of Pannonia and Illyricum obliged him to make peace with Marobodunus (6 A.D.). The pacification of the rebellious provinces was not completed in less time than three years, and in this task Tiberius was ably assisted by his nephew Germanicus.

The closing years of the reign of Augustus were clouded by a terrible disaster that overtook the Roman arms in the provinces that Tiberius and Drusus had apparently conquered, between the Rhine and the Weser. The command of the province, to which the name of Germania had been given, had been assigned in A.D. 6 to Lucius Quintilius Varus, whose exactions and cruelties soon provoked the people to revolt. A leader was found in the person of Hermann, or Arminius, a young chief of the Cherusci, who succeeded in decoying Varus and the three legions that he had with him into an ambushade near the modern Detmoldt. The Roman soldiers, hemmed in

by countless foes on all sides, were cut down to a man, and Varus and his principal officers committed suicide to escape falling into the hands of the enemy. But few of the Romans left in garrison at Aliso succeeded in retreating across the Rhine. Germany, on the north bank of the Rhine, was once more free, and, although Tiberius and Germanicus led an army into the revolted districts in 11 A.D., no battle was fought, and the utmost that appears to have been done was to secure the country on the south bank against a German invasion by a skilful disposition of troops along the river.

In 12 A.D. Tiberius and Germanicus returned to Rome, and in the following year the former was invested with proconsular power, similar to that held by the emperor, in the pro-



vinces. The constant fear of an attack on Gaul by the Germans, which might set the whole of the northern part of the country in a blaze, necessitated the presence of Germanicus on the Rhine frontier, and the disturbed state of Illyricum compelled Tiberius to hasten thither in the summer of 14 A.D. Scarcely had he bid the emperor farewell, and sailed from Brundisium, when messengers were sent after him in haste to announce the death of Augustus, whose end was brought about by an attack of dysentery at Nola, in Campania, August 19, 14 A.D. He had reigned forty-one years, dating the actual commencement of his reign in 27 B.C., and at the time of his death had nearly attained the age of seventy-seven.

During his long reign of forty years, Augustus seemed to find his own happiness in that of his people, whom he studied to preserve in peace. The wars carried on in the distant provinces rather aimed at enforcing submission than extending dominion; and the Roman arms, except in the case of Varus, were still generally crowned with success. His remains were honoured by a splendid funeral. The senate decreed that all the Roman women should mourn for him for a whole year; that temples should be erected to him, and divine honours allowed him; and one Numericus Atticus, willing to convert the adulation of the times to his own benefit, received a large sum of money for swearing that he saw him ascending towards heaven. Such were the honours paid to Augustus, whose power began in the slaughter, and terminated in the happiness of his subjects, and of whom it has been said, "that it would have been good for mankind if he had never been born, or if he had never died." He gave the government an air suited to the disposition of the times, and indulged his subjects in the pride of seeing the appearance of a republic, while in reality he made them happy in the effects of a most absolute monarchy, guided by the most consummate prudence. The long peace which his subjects enjoyed may be entirely ascribed to his moderation; and, about the middle of his reign, the greatest part of mankind saw themselves at once professing obedience to one monarch, and in perfect harmony with each other.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Assumption of the imperial power by Augustus .....	B.C. 27	the East with the standards taken by the Parthians from Crassus .....	B.C. 19
Return of Augustus from			

Conquest of Vindelicia and Rætia by Tiberius and Drusus .....	B.C.	15	to Rhodes, where he remained seven years	R.C.	7
Death of Drusus, surnamed Germanicus, after conquering the Chatti and Cherusci, from a fall from his horse .....			Formal adoption of Tiberius by Augustus as his heir and successor	A.D.	4
Retirement of Tiberius .....		9	Destruction of Roman legions under Varus by the Germans .....	"	9
			Death of Augustus, and accession of Tiberius..	"	14

## 2. TIBERIUS.

The senate, to most members of which the cruelty and revengeful spirit lurking beneath the seeming beneficence of Tiberius were as well known as they had been to Augustus, made no opposition to his immediate assumption of the imperial power, and possibly the very dread of his character may have operated in securing for him an easy succession to the throne. Though he was highly popular, especially with the people, for his victories on the Rhine and the Danube, and his predecessor had left him in possession of a flourishing empire, he eventually injured his popularity, by claiming as a debt that homage which his predecessor was willing to receive as a favour; and he subverted the happiness of the empire, by making a distinction between the welfare of the prince and of the people. However, having acted for a long time in a fictitious character, in the beginning of his reign, nothing appeared on the surface at first but prudence, generosity, and clemency.

He utterly rejected many of those great names and titles of honour which the senate so liberally offered him. He prohibited their erecting to him statues but upon certain occasions, and absolutely forbade them to worship him as a deity. When they offered to swear to obey all the ordinances which he should enact, he checked their vile adulation, and observed that "all sublunary things were mutable and uncertain, and that the higher he was raised, the more he was exposed to danger." Some governors having indicated a mode of increasing his revenues, he answered with indignation, "that a good shepherd ought to shear, but never flay his flock." In short, the commencement of his reign was such a tissue of deep-laid deceit, that he rendered every one the dupe of his affectation of goodness.

er, notwithstanding these symptoms of immoderation, he found that the power enjoyed by his predecessor was limited for the ambition of Tiberius, who demolished the appearance of a republic, no longer assembled the senate and supplied the magistracies of the state by his own

secession of Tiberius was marked by a mutiny of the legion stationed in Pannonia, which was put down by his son. A more serious revolt occurred among the troops under the command of Germanicus, who was entreated by the emperor to lead them to Rome. He succeeded, however, in restoring their allegiance to Tiberius, and then led them against the Germans. The season was too late for any military operations of importance, but in the following year he defeated Arminius in a series of brilliant victories. 15

Germanicus gained so much ground that he compelled him to retreat, Germanicus withdrew his forces to prepare for another effort to reduce Germany on the return of spring. He was again defeated, but no permanent result was achieved and it was resolved on to abandon further attempts to extend the dominion of Rome beyond the Rhine.

Germanicus, indeed, had become an object of jealousy to the emperor, on account of the glory which he had acquired by his military exploits in Germany, and by the high favour in which he was regarded by the Roman people. He was, however, recalled by Tiberius, who, well skilled in dissimulation, permitted him to enter Rome in triumph, with the eagles which had been recovered from the Germans in the

years, and then appointed him governor of all the provinces of Asia. Germanicus departed from Rome on his eastern expedition, and was soon after recalled by Cneius Piso, governor of Syria, whom Tiberius, however, had instructed to oppose him on every occasion, in order to procure his death. The whole empire was deeply distressed on hearing of the fate of Germanicus. 19

but the people of Rome set no bounds to their sorrow, disregarding all public and private business, and filling the streets with lamentations. Agrippina, the wife of Germanicus, publicly charged Piso with the murder of her husband at Rome in the following year, but before his trial the senate was concluded he was found one morning with his throat cut. This was done, it is supposed, by order

of Tiberius,<sup>1</sup> to prevent any damaging revelations if Piso had been found guilty.

Tiberius having now no object of jealousy to awe him, pulled off the mask entirely, and appeared in his natural character. The gloomy disposition and insincerity of the prince were diffused through all ranks of men; and the law of treason, hitherto confined by Augustus to acts of first and afterwards to defamatory writings, being extended to words, a number of persons were brought before the senate, from time to time, charged with having spoken ill of the emperor, and condemned and executed. Cremutius Cordus, who, in his annals of the Roman empire, had called Cassius the last of the Romans, was the first of note that fell a sacrifice to the extended interpretation of the law, although he escaped execution by starving himself to death, after uttering a defence in which he fiercely attacked the vice of the empire (25 A.D.).

About the commencement of these sanguinary measures, Tiberius took into his confidence Lucius *Ælius* Sejanus, a Roman knight, whom the emperor made captain of the prætorian guards, and who ventured to aspire to the throne by the extermination of the whole imperial family.

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Drusus, the son of Tiberius, was cut off by poison. Agrippina, the widow of Germanicus, with the elder of her sons, was subsequently (59 A.D.) banished at his instigation, and the younger confined in prison. He insinuated to Tiberius the great and numerous obstacles offered to the exercise of despotic power by a continued residence in the

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city, and the seditious temper of the inferior citizens of Rome, and persuaded him to leave Rome, and spend his time in the island of *Capreae*, now *Capri*, which was rendered as infamous by the pleasures as detestable by the cruelties of the emperor. In this delightful retreat he abandoned himself to the most shameful enjoyments, but at the same time he paid unremitting attention to public business.

At this time he was sixty-seven years old, and his person was as odious in appearance as his mind was warped by vice. His whole study now centred in forcing his jaded appetites; and he spent entire nights in excesses at the table. He appointed *Pomponius Flaccus* and *Lucius Piso* to the first posts of the empire, merely because they sat up with him two days and two nights without interruption: these he called his friends of all hours. His excesses seemed to increase with

his drunkenness and gluttony, and all his inventions only aimed at rendering his vices more extravagant and abominable. From the moment that he quitted Rome he became daily more and more cruel; and Sejanus was ever active in adding fuel to his jealousy and increasing his malignity. He placed in all parts of the city secret spies and informers, who converted the most harmless actions into subjects of offence. In consequence of pretended crimes, great numbers lost their lives. Virtue or influence failed not to draw down the vengeance of Sejanus, who proceeded, removing all that stood between him and the empire, while he daily increased in confidence with Tiberius and power with the senate. His statues exceeded in number even those of the emperor. People swore by his fortune in the same manner they would have done had he been actually upon the throne, and he was more dreaded than even the tyrant who enjoyed the empire. But while the designs of Sejanus seemed daily to succeed, he was accused to Tiberius of aiming at the throne; and, being imprisoned by command of the emperor, he was strangled by the common executioner; and his body ignominiously dragged about the streets.

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The death of this wretch seemed to inflame the emperor's rage for more executions. Even the emperor's daughter-in-law, Livilla, the widow of Drusus, who had been betrothed to Sejanus, was starved to death; and Agrippina and Drusus, the wife and son of Germanicus, met with the same fate. The prisons were crowded with pretended conspirators, and numbers of the most illustrious persons of Rome, of all ages and both sexes, became the victims of pretended crimes or of jealous suspicion. Tiberius grew weary of particular execution, and gave orders that all the accused should be put to death together, without further examination. The whole city was filled with slaughter and mourning, under the arbitrary rod of this gloomy tyrant. Of twenty-six senators whom he chose for his council he put sixteen to death, exclaiming, "Let them hate me, since they obey me." This monster of cruelty was smothered, or, as some say, poisoned by Macro, in the seventy-eighth year of his age and the twenty-third of his reign. In the eighteenth year of Tiberius, our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ, the divine Author of our religion, suffered upon the cross, a sacrifice and propitiation for the sins of mankind.

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The wars of the reign of Tiberius were, to a certain extent, unimportant, the principal being one with Tacfarinas, a Numidian chieftain, who raised the standard of revolt against the emperor's authority in 17 A.D., and carried on a guerilla warfare with varied success for seven years, when he was defeated and killed by Dollabella. A rebellion broke out in Gaul, which was speedily subdued in 21 A.D., and a revolt of the Frisians, who succeeded in regaining their independence, took from the Romans most of the land which they yet held beyond the Rhine. The conquest of Mœsia was completed and secured, and Artabanus, the king of Parthia, who had seized on Armenia in 34 A.D., was compelled by Vitellius, in 36 A.D., to withdraw from this country by an attack on Mesopotamia.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Germanicus sent on a mission to the East ...	A.D. 17	Retirement of Tiberius from Rome to Capres	A.D. 26
Germanicus poisoned at Antioch by Piso .....	" 19	Death of Livia, the mother of Tiberius.....	" 29
Drusus poisoned by his wife Livilla, at the instigation of the infamous Sejanus .....	" 23	Fall and death of Sejanus at Rome .....	" 30
		Death of Tiberius, and accession of Caligula..	" 37

#### 3. CALIGULA.

The late emperor had nominated for his heir Caligula,\* the son of Germanicus, who had been the darling of the army and the people, and joined with him his grandson Tiberius Gemellus, the son of Drusus. However, on the entrance of Caligula into the city, he was received with new titles of honour by the senate, who set aside the right of his colleague, and declared him sole successor to the empire. All mankind seemed combined to praise him for virtues which their hopes and not their experience had attributed to him, but in which they were universally mistaken. At first, indeed, the conduct of Caligula was calculated to deceive; and it would have been happy both for him and the empire had he maintained the reputation with which he commenced his reign. He evinced

\* He was so called from caliga, a short buskin, which was worn by the common sentinels, and which he used in imitation of them.

the most pious regard to the memory of his deceased relations in general, and ordered that the month of September should be called Germanicus, in commemoration of his father. He caused the institutions of Augustus, which had been disused in the reign of Tiberius, to be revived, and undertook to reform many abuses in the state. He attempted to restore the ancient method of electing magistrates by the suffrages of the people, and conferred on them a free jurisdiction, without any appeal to himself. In short, such were his concessions, and such his apparent virtues, that a shield of gold, bearing his image, was decreed to be carried annually to the Capitol, attended by the senate, and the sons of the nobility, singing in praise of the emperor; and the day on which he mounted the throne was inserted among the festivals. However, in the place of moderation and clemency soon succeeded furious passions, unexampled avarice, and capricious cruelty; and madness itself could scarcely dictate barbarities more extravagant, or inconsistencies more ridiculous, than are imputed to Caligula.

The first object of his cruelty was a person named Politus, who had devoted himself to death, in case the emperor should recover from a fit of sickness, and whom Caligula, after the re-establishment of his health, compelled to complete his vow. After him a crowd of victims were immolated to the emperor's avarice or suspicions, and among these was the young Tiberius Gemellus and his grandmother Antonia. He fought in the arena as a gladiator—his antagonists, however, using blunted weapons—and compelled senators and knights to do the same. He claimed divine honours, and gave himself the names of such divinities as he thought most agreeable to his nature. For this purpose he caused the heads of Jupiter and some other gods to be cut off, and his own to be put in their places. He seated himself between Castor and Pollux, and commanded that all who came to their temple to worship should pay their adorations only to him. But such was the extravagant folly and absurdity of Caligula, whose crimes and caprices can only be accounted for by insanity, produced in a weak nature rendered weaker by youthful excesses, by the attainment of uncontrolled power, that he changed his divinity as often as he changed his clothes, and sometimes became a male and at others a female deity. He even built and dedicated a temple to his own divinity, in which his statue of gold was every

day dressed in robes similar to those which he wore, and worshipped by crowds of adorers. His priests were numerous, and among the number were his horse and his wife. In assuming the manners of a deity, he often went out at the time of full moon, and addressed the orb of night in the language of a lover. He used many inventions to imitate thunder, and frequently defied Jupiter, crying out in a speech of Homer, "Do you conquer me, or I will conquer you."

He was not less notorious for the depraved nature of his sensuality than for his unjust presumptions, and his envy was not less detestable than his lusts. But of all his vices, his prodigality was the most remarkable, and in some measure gave rise to the rest. He invented dishes of immense value, and caused even jewels to be dissolved among his sauces. Instead of meat, he sometimes had services of pure gold presented before his guests.

He built a stable of marble, and a manger of ivory, for his favourite horse Incitatus, for which he also appointed a house, furniture, and a kitchen, that it might treat all its visitors with due respect. Sometimes, indeed, the emperor invited Incitatus to his own table; and it is said, that he intended to have appointed it to the consulship, had he not been prevented by death.

Whenever Caligula spoke to his wife, or any Roman lady, it was a common practice of his to lay his hand on her neck, observing that, however smooth and lovely it was, he could take it off when he pleased. Being informed by an exile that, during his banishment, he had prayed for the death of Tiberius, Caligula, immediately concluding that those whom he had banished wished for his death also, commanded that all exiles should be slain without mercy. At one time it is said that he uttered a wish "that all the Roman people had but one neck, that he might dispatch them at a single blow."

In the third year of his reign he undertook an expedition against the Germans, and talked with so much resolution, that

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A.D. it was universally believed he would conquer all before him. His march perfectly indicated the inequality of his temper, for it was sometimes so rapid that their cohorts were obliged to leave their standards behind them; and, at other times, it was so slow as to resemble a funeral procession rather than a military expedition. However, all these mighty preparations ended in nothing.



The following year he issued orders for an invasion of Britain, after spending the winter at Lugdunum, and raising money to satisfy his extravagances. After leading his army to the sea-shore, he disposed his engines and warlike machines with great solemnity, and drawing up the troops in order of battle, went on board his galley, and commanded the trumpets to sound, and the signal to be given as if for an engagement. Immediately the men, having received previous orders, began to gather into their helmets the shells which lay on the shore, and which they termed the spoils of the conquered ocean. Caligula then calling his army together, as a general after victory, harangued them in a pompous manner, and highly extolled their achievements; and after distributing money among them, he congratulated them upon their riches, and dismissed them with orders to be joyful.

In short, the follies and absurdities of this monarch were equal to his vices; and it is difficult to say whether he was more hated than despised by his subjects. He was assassinated, after a reign of less than four years, by **41**  
Cassius Chærea, a tribune of the Prætorian Guards, **A.D.**  
and some members of his household. He was in his twenty-ninth year when he was murdered.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Caligula's mock expedition against the Germans and other tribes of the north .....	A.D. 39	His pretended invasion of Britain .....	A.D. 40
		His assassination by Cassius Chærea.....	,, 41

## 4. CLAUDIUS.

The republican party in the senate, long harassed by the cruelty of tyrants, panted once more for the restoration of their former freedom, and ventured to talk of extinguishing the name of Cæsar; but the populace and the army opposed the design. In this opposition of opinion, some of the Prætorian guards happening to discover Claudius, the uncle of Caligula, lurking in a secret place, where he had hidden himself through fear, carried him upon their shoulders to the camp, where they proclaimed him emperor. Claudius, uncle to the late tyrant, and nephew to Tiberius, was fifty years old when he began to reign. The complicated diseases of his infancy had affected all the faculties both of his mind and

body; and though the caprice of fortune had made him an emperor, his abilities did not rise to mediocrity, and his capacity for business was still more contemptible.

However, the commencement of his reign augured well, and he employed himself in administering justice, and in adorning the interior parts of the empire. Mauritania, which had become a Roman possession in 40 A.D., when Ptolemy, the son of Juba II., was murdered by order of Caligula, was erected by him into two provinces, distinguished as Mauritania Tingitana and Mauritania Cæsariensis, from the principal towns in each, namely, Tingis, now Tangier, and Julia Cæsarea, now

**41** Zershell. He even undertook to gratify the people by foreign conquest. An attack was made by Ser-

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vius Galba on the Germans beyond the Rhine without any decisive result, but the German tribes, at variance among themselves, submitted to the control of a German chief who had been brought up at Rome, and who was under Roman influence, placed over them by Claudius; and later the Frisians and Chauci were conquered by Domitius Corbulo. An army was also sent under Aulus Plautius against the Britons, who, under the conduct of their king Cunobelinus, were several times overthrown. These successes induced Claudius

**44** to visit Britain in person, but after continuing there only sixteen days, he returned to Rome. The war

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was vigorously prosecuted by Aulus Plautius and his lieutenant Vespasian, who fought thirty battles with the enemy, and reduced a part of the island into the form of a Roman province.

Under the government of Ostorius Scapula, who succeeded Plautius, the Britons rose up in arms, and disclaimed the Roman power. The Iceni, the Cangi, and the Brigantes made a powerful resistance, though they were at

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length obliged to submit; but the Silures, or inhabitants of South Wales, under their king Caractacus, proved very formidable opponents, and, removing the seat of war into the most inaccessible parts of the country, kept the Romans in continual alarm for many years. At length, however, the

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army of Caractacus was entirely defeated, and himself taken prisoner and led captive to Rome, where the magnanimity of his demeanour procured him pardon from the emperor, and respect and admiration from all. But the Britons, though humbled, were by no means subdued;

and a warfare was carried on by them during the whole reign of this monarch.

Claudius, who had commenced his reign with much promise, soon committed the concerns of the empire to favourites, who were to the utmost degree abandoned and infamous. The chief of these was his wife Valeria Messalina, whose name has become proverbial for female profligacy. Subordinate to her were Polybius, the treasurer, Narcissus, the secretary of state, and Callistus, the master of the requests. These entirely governed Claudius, and left him only the fatigues of ceremony, while they possessed all the power of the state. Innumerable were the cruelties which these insidious advisers obliged the feeble emperor to commit. Even his own family, on one pretence or another, was almost exterminated. Among the illustrious sufferers were Pætus and his faithful Arria (42 A.D.). The former being condemned to die by his own hand, Arria used every art to inspire him with resolution; but finding him continue timid and wavering, she took the poniard, and, stabbing herself in his presence, presented it to him, saying, "It gives me no pain, my Pætus."

While the favourites of the emperor endeavoured to establish his and their authority by such cruelties, they wrought so effectually on the terrors of Claudius, that he never ventured to go to any feast without being surrounded by his guards, nor would he suffer any man to approach him without a previous search. Thus, wholly employed by his anxiety for self-preservation, he left the care of the state entirely to his favourites, who gradually gave him a relish for slaughter. Nor was he less regardless of the persons whom he condemned, than cruel in the infliction of their punishment. He was so extremely stupid that he frequently invited those to supper whom he had put to death only the preceding day; and he often denied that he had given orders for an execution but a few hours after pronouncing sentence. In his reign no less than thirty-five senators, and above three hundred knights, were executed; and such was his unconcern, that one of the tribunes having brought him an account of a certain senator who was executed, he owned that he had quite forgot his offence, but calmly acquiesced in his punishment.

In the meantime, Messalina became more daring by long-continued success in crimes, and set no bounds to her enormities. After appearing for some years insatiable in her de-

sires, she at length fixed her affections upon **Caius Silius**, the most beautiful youth in Rome, whom she married during a temporary retirement of the emperor at Ostia, with the understanding that he should proclaim her son **Britannicus**, who was born in 41 A.D., emperor in the room of her husband. **Narcissus**, the emperor's first freedman, who had quarrelled with **Messalina**, availed himself of the opportunity which the mad passion of the empress furnished, to effect her ruin by discovering her infamy, and urging the necessity of speedy punishment. **Claudius**, who was quite terrified at so unexpected a relation, frequently interrupted his freedman, and asked if he was still master of the empire. Being assured that he yet had it in his power to continue so, he resolved to punish without delay the affront which was thus offered to his dignity. **Silius** was taken and put to death; and **Messalina**, after attempting in vain to mollify the emperor's wrath, was ordered to appear before **Claudius** on a certain day and plead her defence. However, **Narcissus**, fearing that the permission to defend herself might prove fatal to him, ordered

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the tribunes and centurions, who were in readiness, to execute her immediately by the emperor's command. **Claudius** heard of her death without emotion, and a few days after, while sitting at table, he asked why **Messalina** was absent, as if he had totally forgotten her crimes and her fate.

**Messalina** being thus put to death on account of her infamous conduct, **Claudius** espoused as his fourth wife **Agrippina the younger**, the daughter of his brother **Germanicus**, who had poisoned her former husband, **Cneius Domitius Ahenobarbus**, and who, if possible, was even more practised in vice than the late empress. The chief design of **Agrippina** was to gain the succession in favour of her son **Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus**, and set aside the claims of young **Britannicus**, who, as it has been said, was son to the emperor and **Messalina**. Having at length prevailed on the feeble monarch to adopt as his heir and successor her son, who by the act of adoption changed his name to **Nero Claudius Caesar Drusus Germanicus**, she hesitated no longer to carry out a crime, which she had previously meditated. In order, therefore, to make room for the immediate elevation of her son, she caused poison to be given **Claudius** among mushrooms, a dish of which he was particularly fond.

Soon after he had eaten, he dropped down insensible ; but this caused no alarm, as it was usual with him to sit eating till he had stupified all his faculties, and was obliged to be carried from the table to his bed. But his constitution seeming to overcome the effects of the potion, Agrippina directed an abandoned physician, who was in her pay, to thrust a poisoned feather down his throat, under pretence of making him vomit ; and this soon put an end to his life. At the time of his death Claudius was in the sixty-fourth year of his life, and the fourteenth of his reign.

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## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Claudius proclaimed by the Prætorian Guards	A.D. 41	Caractacus defeated and sent to Rome in chains	A.D. 50
Expedition of Aulus Plautius to Britain	„ 41	Death of Messalina, the third wife of Claudius	„ 48
Visit of the Emperor Claudius to Britain	„ 44	Adoption of Lucius Domitius by Claudius	„ 50
Rebellion of the Britons in the time of Ostorius Scapula	„ 47	Claudius poisoned by his fourth wife, Agrippina	„ 54

## 5. NERO.

Nero, though only seventeen years of age, commenced his reign with the approbation of mankind, and showed the most pious regard to the memory of the deceased emperor, who was declared to have become a deity after death by the senate. In fact, the beginning of Nero's reign, while he continued to act by the counsels of his tutor, the eminent philosopher Seneca, and Burrus, the prefect of the Prætorian Guards, by whom he was proclaimed emperor as soon as the death of Claudius was announced, and whose choice was ratified by the senate, has always been considered as a model for young princes. The youthful monarch could conceal his innate depravity so well, that his nearest friends could scarcely perceive that his virtues were only assumed. He appeared just, liberal, and humane ; and his condescension and affability were not less than his other virtues ; so that the Romans began to think that heaven had sent them a prince, whose clemency would compensate for the tyranny of his predecessors.

His mother, however, sought to wield, through her son,

the chief power in the state, and on one occasion when ambassadors came from Armenia to ask aid against Vologeses, king of Parthia, who had placed his brother Tiridates on the throne, she would have taken a seat beside him on the tribunal, had not Seneca caused Nero to leave the throne under the pretence of receiving his mother on her entrance into the assembly. The result of this appeal was that Domitius Corbulo was recalled from Germany and sent to the east. He drove out the Parthians and restored Tigranes to the throne of Armenia in 60 A.D., but, being removed to the government of Syria, Tiridates again asserted his claim in the following year, and the matter was arranged by his consenting to hold the throne from Nero as a vassal of the Roman empire.

However, it was only for a short time that Nero maintained a decency of public conduct. His natural depravity soon appeared; and as he increased in years, his crimes seemed to increase in proportion. He took a strange pleasure in running about the city by night, and frequenting places to which only the lowest of the low resorted. He entirely threw off his mother's control, and when she threatened to place Britannicus, the son of Claudius, on the throne, he retorted by poisoning his cousin and step-brother. He deserted his wife Octavia, the sister of Britannicus and daughter of the infamous Messalina, and formed a disgraceful connection with Poppæa, the wife of his favourite Otho, a woman more celebrated for her beauty than her virtues. Agrippina vainly used all her interest to disgrace Poppæa, who, inflamed with resentment, impelled Nero to commit parricide, in order to satisfy her revenge. Accordingly, after a fruitless attempt to procure her death by drowning, Nero sent some soldiers and his freedman Anicetus to his mother, who, finding that she was to expect no mercy, and seeing Anicetus draw his sword to stab her, presented her bosom, crying out, "Strike here, for this place gave birth to a monster." He sought to make the senate believe that his mother had killed herself, in consequence of having been detected in a plot against his life, but no attempts to justify himself—for after all it was well known that Agrippina had been murdered by her son's orders—in the eyes of the senate and the Roman people, and to excuse himself in his own eyes, could remove the pangs of conscience and bitter remorse for this hideous crime that he felt during the remainder of his life.

A strange contrast appeared in the disposition of Nero, who, while he practised cruelties which were sufficient to freeze the mind with horror, was fond of those amusing arts that soften and refine the heart. In particular, he was addicted from childhood to music, and not totally ignorant of poetry. However, chariot-driving was his favourite pursuit, and he resolved to become one of the principal performers in the chariot-races, though his governors endeavoured to restrain this pitiful ambition. It was also his darling amusement to exhibit on the stage and amphitheatre, as an actor, a musician, or gladiator.

Happy would it have been for mankind, had Nero confined himself to these puerilities, and been content with being contemptible, without being also formidable. His cruelties, however, exceeded all his other extravagances. His wife Octavia he had divorced in 61 A.D., and not content with this and procuring her banishment, he caused her to be murdered that he might marry Poppæa, who, in her turn, perished four years after through the brutality of her inhuman husband, who literally kicked her to death. But another of his atrocious crimes remains to be related, if, as it is said, it be true that it was done by his orders. A great part

of the city of Rome was consumed by fire; and most historians ascribe the conflagration to him, who, it is said, took his station on the villa of Mæcenæ, which stood on the Esquiline hill and overlooked the whole city, and enjoyed the sight during the continuance of the flames, repeating, in a theatrical tone and habit, some verses on the destruction of Troy. He used all his arts to throw the odium of so detestable an action from himself, and fix it on the Christians, some of whom were crucified, and others burnt alive, or sewn up in the skins of beasts and worried to death by dogs. Suspecting Seneca of being implicated in a conspiracy against him, which was set on foot by Caius Calpurnius Piso, he ordered him to commit suicide. Seneca's nephew, Lucian, the poet, also received the same command, and causing the veins of his arms to be opened, expired while repeating that beautiful passage in his *Pharsalia*, which begins,

“————— Nec sicut vulnere sanguis  
Emicnit lentus : ruptis cadit undique venis.”\*

\* Nor did the blood well forth slowly as from a wound, but fell on all sides like rain from the severed veins.

Thus the whole city was filled with slaughter, and frightful instances of treason. Masters were not secure from the vengeance of their slaves, nor even parents from the baser attempts of their children. Not only throughout Rome, but the whole surrounding country, bodies of soldiers pursued the suspected and the guilty; and whole crowds of wretches, loaded with chains, were led every day to the gates of the palace, to wait their sentence from the lips of the tyrant.

After reconstructing the ruined city and building a palace, which, from its magnificence and costliness, was called "The Golden House," Nero resolved to make the tour of the empire, and give the most public display of his abilities in the fine arts. At Naples, the crowds were so great, and the curiosity of the people so earnest in hearing him, that they did not perceive an earthquake which happened while he was singing. During the time he performed, no person was allowed to depart from the theatre upon any pretence; but some were so fatigued with hearing him, that they leaped privately from the walls, or pretended to fall into fainting fits, in order to be carried out. Vespasian himself, having fallen asleep upon one of these occasions, very narrowly escaped with his life for such a mark of disrespect. Nero, being satiated with the flattery of his countrymen, determined to pass over into Greece, in order to receive new theatrical honours. In this journey, his retinue resembled an army in number; but it was only composed of singers, dancers, tailors, and other attendants upon the theatre. He traversed Greece, and ex-

**66** hibited at all their games, which he ordered to be  
 A.D. celebrated in the same year, and at all of which he  
 came off conqueror, if not by merit, at least by  
 favour. He obtained no fewer than eighteen hundred  
 crowns; and, upon his return from Greece, entered Naples  
 through a breach in the walls of the city, as was customary  
 with those who were conquerors at the Olympic games. But  
 all his splendour was reserved for his entry into Rome, where  
 he appeared seated in the chariot of Augustus, dressed in  
 robes of purple, crowned with wild olive, which was the  
 Olympic garland, and carrying in his hand the Pythian  
 crown. Beside him sat one Diodorus, a musician; and he  
 was followed by a band of singers as numerous as a legion,  
 who sang in honour of his victories. This puerile pageant



was attended by the senate, the knights, and the people, who filled the air with their acclamations.

At length, become the object of universal hatred and contempt, Julius Vindex, who commanded the legions in Gaul, first publicly protested against his tyrannical government, and excited an insurrection, endeavouring to persuade Servius Galba, a senator, who had been conducting the government of Spain for eight years, to join in the revolt and permit himself to be proclaimed emperor. Vindex was defeated by troops sent against him by Nero, and then Galba, fearing that Nero might next order him to be attacked, threw off the mask and was proclaimed emperor by his soldiers. As soon as Nero was informed of the actual revolt of Galba, who was a brave general, he cried out that he was utterly undone. Instead of attempting any resistance, he became frantic with rage, and busied himself with frivolous, or rather insane occupations. At length, the revolt having become general, a slave, at his own request, despatched him with a dagger, and in him ended the line of the Cæsars. During the greatest part of his reign, he had been a scourge to his people, and a disgrace to human nature; and the joy which pervaded the city, on being delivered from such a monster, may be more easily conceived than described.

68  
A.D.

In tracing the course of Nero's reign at home, and recording his fearful career of extravagance, folly, and crime, many noteworthy events occurring in remote provinces of the empire have been lost sight of, and these it will be necessary to notice before proceeding further. In Britain, in 61 A.D., the famous revolt of the tribes, under Boadicea, had taken place, and had been ruthlessly but effectually suppressed by the energetic measures taken by Suetonius Paulinus to restore Roman supremacy in the island. In Judea Christianity had been making steady progress against all the efforts made by the Jewish high priests to check its onward march, and the assistance rendered to them by some of the Roman procurators; and it is worthy of notice that Nero was the Cæsar to whom St. Paul appealed when brought before Festus, and in whose reign the great apostle of the Gentiles was brought to Rome as a prisoner. The exact time, place, and manner of his death is unknown, but it is supposed that he suffered martyrdom at Rome with St. Peter, not many

months before Nero himself was called to his last account. When Nero was in Greece news was brought to him of the great revolt of the Jews, in 66 A.D., and the stand they had made against Gessius Florus, the procurator of Judea, and Cestius Gallus, the governor of Syria, who had marched to his assistance. Vespasian, who was with Nero, was dispatched in haste to Judea, to reduce its turbulent people to obedience, and he and his son Titus were marching on Jerusalem, whose terrible doom, as foretold by our Lord, was close at hand, when the tidings reached them that the Caesarean dynasty had been brought to a sudden close by the death of Nero, and that Galba reigned in his stead.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Nero .....	A.D. 54	Rome set on fire and almost entirely destroyed .....	A.D. 64
Murder of Agrippina by Nero's orders .....	59	Revolt of the Jews against Rome: Vespasian sent to Judea ...	66
Restoration of Tigranes to the throne of Armenia by Domitius Corbulo .....	60	Revolt of Vindex and subsequently of Galba ..	69
Revolt of Boadicea and the Britons suppressed by Suetonius Paulinus.....	61	Death of Nero, and accession of Servius Galba as emperor.....	68

### CHAPTER III.

#### BETWEEN THE CAESAREAN AND FLAVIAN DYNASTIES.

68 A.D. to 69 A.D.

#### GALBA, OTHO, AND VITELLIUS.

THE brief period that elapsed between the termination of the Caesarean dynasty and the establishment of the Flavian dynasty saw no less than three emperors on the imperial throne of Rome. The first of these, Servius Galba, who was of an ancient and illustrious family, was seventy-two years of age when declared emperor, and was at that time in Spain

with his legions. He had been proclaimed by the soldiers in Spain on April 3, and, being a man of well-known integrity and capacity, his accession was ratified by the senate immediately after the death of Nero. Being informed that Nero was dead, and the empire transferred to him by the senate, as it had previously been by the army, he immediately assumed the title and ensigns of command, and marched to Rome, which city, however, he did not reach until December. Though raised to the empire by means of the soldiers, he was anxious to suppress their power; and some of them having made excessive demands for the future, just before he entered the city, he resorted to such extensive punishments as seemed to deviate into cruelty. His ill-timed parsimony also speedily occasioned him the loss of his popularity, and he, who before his accession was esteemed by all, was now considered with ridicule and contempt.

Indeed, it seems to have been desired by him to punish with severity those vices which had arrived at an enormous height during the last reign, and to replenish the treasury, which had been entirely drained by the prodigality of his predecessors. However, the state was too much corrupted to admit of such an immediate transition from vice to virtue, as this worthy but weak politician attempted to effect. The people, who had long been maintained in sloth and luxury by the prodigality of the former emperors, could not think of being obliged to seek for subsistence by industry and frugality. They therefore satirised the old man, and turned the simplicity of his manners into ridicule. It is said that he groaned upon having an expensive soup served up at his table; that he presented to his steward, for his fidelity, a plate of beans; and that a famous player upon the flute, named Canus, having greatly delighted him, he drew out his purse, and gave him five pence, telling him that it was private, and not public, money.

It should be remarked, however, that avarice was rather the vice of his confidants than of Galba, and some iniquitous prosecutions and confiscations excited general discontent and mutiny. Among these the most formidable was the revolt of the troops stationed in Upper Germany, who, when they were summoned to take the oath of allegiance to Galba, on January 1, 69 A.D., refused to do so. Their example was immediately followed by the legions in Lower Germany, and the united

body saluted Aulus Vitellius, who had been sent by Galba into Lower Germany as consular legate, with the title of emperor, and he forthwith commenced his march on Rome. Galba, being informed of these commotions, resolved to adopt some person as his heir, whose virtues might deserve such advancement, and protect his declining age from danger. Accordingly he made choice of Lucius Piso Licinianus, who was every way worthy of the honour designed. This measure excited considerable discontent among the troops, and many of the officers were dismissed. The people also cared little about Galba and Piso, and those who were desirous of an immediate change soon found a leader in Marcus Salvius Otho, Nero's former favourite, and subsequently, during his residence in Spain, a warm supporter and a favourite of Galba. Otho, annoyed at not being nominated by Galba as his heir, avowed his intentions of aiming at the throne, and was immediately seconded in his views by the soldiers, who, taking him upon their shoulders, declared him emperor, and soon after presented him, as a grateful offering, with the heads of Galba and Piso. Thus died Galba, after a short reign of seven months, as illustrious by his native virtue as contaminated by the vices of his favourites. Of Galba it has been said, that had he never mounted a throne he would have been always thought capable of reigning.

69 No sooner was the murder of Galba known than  
 A.D. the senate and people ran in crowds to the camp, eager to extol the virtues of the new emperor and vilify his predecessor. In a private station Otho had been weak, vicious, and debauched; but no sooner was he raised to the empire than he began to exhibit qualities of an entirely different character, giving up his former luxurious habits, and showing signs of manliness, courage, and even humanity. The legions in Upper and Lower Germany—who, as it has been said, had already proclaimed Vitellius in preference to Galba—were in no disposition to transfer their allegiance to Otho at the bidding of the senate. They hastened onwards to Rome, and Otho, gathering troops, marched northwards to Cisalpine Gaul to meet them. A decisive battle was fought near Bedriacum, and the troops of Otho being defeated, he formed a resolution to die, as the only means of ridding himself of his cares and his country of its calamities. Accordingly, awaking by break of day, he took a dagger which he had

placed under his pillow the night before, and, giving himself a mortal stab on the left side, ended his life with a single groan, after a short reign of three months and five days.

Vitellius, being thus seconded by a victorious army, was immediately proclaimed emperor by the senate, though he was still in Gaul. After his arrival in Rome he committed the affairs of state to the lowest wretches, and abandoned himself to all kinds of luxury and profuseness. Gluttony, however, was his predominant vice, and he brought himself to a habit of vomiting, that he might be able to renew his meals at pleasure. Thus this filthy glutton spent his time in the most gross sensualities; and if he had reigned long the whole empire would not have been sufficient to have maintained his table. All the attendants of his court sought to raise themselves by the sumptuousness of their entertainments, and this prodigality soon produced want, which gave rise to cruelty and rapine.

He now destroyed without mercy those who had formerly been his associates, and going to visit one of them in a violent fever, he mingled poison with his drink, and delivered it to him with his own hands, in order to obtain his fortune. He never pardoned money-lenders who presumed to demand payment of his former debts, and he thus cancelled old claims by seizing on both the life and property of the applicant. A Roman knight, being dragged away to execution, cried out that he had made the emperor his heir. Vitellius therefore demanded to see the will, where, finding himself joint inheritor with another, he ordered both to be executed, that he might enjoy the legacy without a partner. The incessant repetition of such vices and cruelties rendered him not only a burthen to himself, but odious to all mankind. The astrologers, with no vain foresight, now began to prognosticate his downfall, and they set up a writing in the forum to the following effect: "We, in the name of the ancient Chaldeans, give Vitellius warning to depart this life by the calends of October."

Vespasian, who had long before been appointed general against the Jews, had reduced most of their country except Jerusalem, which he was about to besiege, when he understood that Vitellius was held in universal detestation. He had hitherto loyally given his adhesion to each emperor

acknowledged by the senate, but, aware of his popularity, not only among his own soldiers, but even at Rome, and having witnessed the discontent with which his legions took the oath of allegiance to Vitellius, he immediately took measures to secure his accession to the imperial throne. He was proclaimed at Alexandria by Tiberius Alexander, the prefect of Egypt, who had declared in his favour on July 1, 69 A.D., and before the month was over he was acknowledged by all the Eastern provinces. Leaving his son Titus to prosecute the siege of Jerusalem, which had not been long commenced, he immediately turned his attention to taking measures for the retention of the power he had so suddenly attained, and sent Mucianus and Antonius Primus into Italy to drive Vitellius from the throne. As his legions passed through the Northern provinces all declared for Vespasian. The adherents of Vitellius made a supreme effort at Bedriacum to stem the tide of invasion, but were totally defeated, and Antonius pushed on towards Rome. Arrangements had been made for the abdication of Vitellius, when his adherents in the city, and some of the soldiers who had made their way southwards from Bedriacum, rose in his favour and killed Flavius Sabinus, the brother of Vespasian. Domitian, Vespasian's son, narrowly escaped with life.

Hearing of the sudden outbreak in favour of Vitellius, Antonius hastened to enter the city, which the supporters of Vitellius, knowing that no quarter would be given, on account of the murder of Sabinus, resolved to defend to the last. Rome was soon attacked on three sides with the utmost fury. The army within sallied upon the besiegers, and an obstinate and a bloody battle ensued. At length the troops of Antonius drove the besieged into the city, when a dreadful slaughter commenced in all the streets, which the latter vainly attempted to defend. Vitellius was taken and put to death, and his body, after being dragged through the streets with a hook, was ignominiously thrown into the Tiber. Such was the merited end of this brutal monarch, after a short reign of eight months and five days, begun in cruelty and continued with universal detestation. In him absolute power had fallen into bad hands indeed!

The last three emperors had only appeared like sovereigns in a tragedy, "to strut their hour upon the stage, and then to be seen no more."

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Galba acknowledged by the Roman Senate, June 9, A.D. 68	Death of Otho, after the battle of Bedriacum, April 16, A.D. 69
Murder of Galba and accession of Otho, Jan. 15, „ 69	Proclamation of Vespasian at Alexandria, July 1, „ 69
Proclamation of Vitellius in Germany, Jan. 1, „ 69	Death of the Emperor Aulus Vitellius, Dec. 21, „ 69

## CHAPTER IV.

## THE FLAVIAN DYNASTY.

69 A.D. to 96 A.D.

## 1. VESPASIAN.

**THE** new dynasty founded by Vespasian was far more illustrious than that of the Casars in two of its members, though it sunk to the same level, as it will be seen, in the third. Its founder was a Sabine, and was born near Reate, November 17, 9 A.D. His father, Titus Flavius Sabinus, a man who may be described as a simple country gentleman, had married Vespasia Polla, the sister of a Roman senator. Their children were Titus Flavius Sabinus, whose fate has been related, and Titus Flavius Vespasianus, so called after his mother. Vespasian himself married Flavia Domitilla, and had two sons—Titus Flavius Vespasianus, better known as Titus, and Titus Flavius Domitianus, afterwards the infamous Domitian. He served with distinction in the army in various parts of the empire, and was promoted to the command of a legion in Britain in 43 A.D. About 60 A.D. he obtained the proconsulship of Africa, but forebore to enrich himself, after the manner of proconsuls of the empire, by extorting money from the people. After this he became nothing more than a simple contractor for the supply of cattle from Africa; but in 66 A.D., as we have seen, he was suddenly selected by Nero as commander-in-chief of the army entrusted with the subjugation of Judea.

Immediately after the death of Vitellius, Vespasian was declared emperor by the unanimous consent both of the

senate and the army ; and messengers were sent into Egypt, requesting his return, and testifying the utmost desire for his government. But before he set out for Rome, it is said that he cured a blind and a lame man by touching them. As he approached the metropolis he was met by the senate and half the inhabitants, who testified their joy in having an emperor of such great and experienced virtues. Whilst Vespasian was thus receiving the homage of his subjects, his son Titus carried on the war against the Jews with vigour. He wished to spare Jerusalem, and tried, but in vain, every means in his power to induce the Jews to surrender. After a siege of six

**70** months Jerusalem was totally destroyed, having  
 A.D. flourished, under the peculiar direction of Heaven,  
 above two thousand years. According to Josephus, the numbers who perished in the siege amounted to more than a million of souls, and the captives to almost one hundred thousand. Rather more than sixty years later, after sundry attempts to recover their national freedom, the wretched

**133** survivors were banished, and dispersed into all parts  
 A.D. of the world, where they have ever since remained, in their posterity, a monument of the divine wrath, and an evidence of the truth of revelation. The first year of Vespasian's reign was also signalised by a gallant attempt made by Civilis, a commander of Batavian cavalry in the service of Rome, to liberate Upper and Lower Germany, or the Roman provinces established on the left or south bank of the Rhine, from foreign dominion. He met with considerable success at first, but was eventually conquered, and the mutinous provinces reduced to obedience. Their reduction was almost simultaneous with the fall of Jerusalem. The return of Titus, and the triumph he held in conjunction with his father, was marked with all the magnificence and joy that could be expressed. This was the first time that the father and the son ever triumphed together at Rome. Vespasian built a temple to Peace, in which were deposited the book of the holy law and most of the Jewish spoils ; and having now calmed all commotions in every part of the empire, he shut up the temple of Janus.

Having thus given security and peace to the empire, Vespasian resolved to correct numberless abuses, which had grown up under the tyranny of his predecessors ; and to effect this with greater facility, he joined Titus with him in the consul-



ship and tribunitial power, and, in some measure, admitted him as a partner in all the highest offices of the state. He endeavoured to restrain the licentiousness of the army, and bring them back to their pristine discipline. He degraded such of the senators and knights as were a disgrace to their station, and supplied their places with the most worthy men he could find. He abridged the processes, which had been unreasonably lengthened, in the courts of justice. In short, he passed a long reign of clemency and moderation, of justice and equity. His only fault was a tincture of avarice, which was greatly extenuated by the laudable and patriotic use to which he appropriated his revenues. "He was a man," says Pliny, "in whom power made no alteration, except in giving him the opportunity of doing good equal to his will."

He always seemed averse from those swelling titles which the senate and people were constantly offering him; and when the king of Parthia, in one of his letters, styled himself king of kings, Vespasian, in his answer, simply called himself Flavius Vespasian. So far from attempting to hide the lowness of his origin, he frequently mentioned it in company; and when some flatterers would have derived his pedigree from Hercules, he despised and derided the meanness of their adulation. In this manner, after reigning ten years, beloved by his subjects, and deserving their affection, he was surprised with an indisposition at Campania, which from the beginning he declared would be fatal, and cried out, with a rough and cynical attempt to deride the divine honours that the senate had so often decreed to their emperors, "Methinks I am going to be a god." Removing thence to a country seat near Reate, he was seized with a flux, which brought him to the last extremity; and perceiving his end approaching, and that he was about to expire, he observed that "an emperor ought to die standing." He, therefore, raised himself upon his feet, and expired in the arms of his supporters.

The Golden House, which had been built by Nero, was pulled down by Vespasian, who built the Colosseum, or Flavian Amphitheatre, and the Baths of Titus on the site which it had occupied. He also rebuilt the Capitol and Forum, and raised a temple to Peace, in honour of the quietness that prevailed throughout the empire during his reign. Although he was an uneducated man himself he appreciated learning in others, and did all that he could to promote education among

all classes at Rome, appointing public teachers paid by the state, among whom was the celebrated Greek orator Quinctilian.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Reduction of Jerusalem by Titus.....	A.D. 70	Triumph of Vespasian and Titus at Rome ...	A.D. 71
Suppression of the revolt in German Gaul .....	„ 70	Death of Vespasian, and accession of Titus.....	„ 79

#### 2. TITUS.

On the death of Vespasian his son Titus was joyfully received as emperor. He commenced his reign with the practice of moderation and humanity; and his prudent conduct, added to his justice and generosity, procured him the love of all good men, and the appellation of the "Delight of Mankind." Recollecting one night at table that he had done nothing beneficial during that day, he exclaimed, "O my friends, I have lost a day!" He was so tender of the lives of his subjects that, in order to keep his hands undefiled with blood, he took upon him the office of Pontifex Maximus, or high priest. But, unfortunately for Titus, the historians of the day represent him as having been addicted to vices of the most odious nature in his youth; and the costly display at the opening of the Colosseum, which took place in 80 A.D., soon after Rome had been again visited by a destructive fire and a plague which carried off 10,000 persons daily, render it doubtful whether a long possession of unrestrained personal power might not have caused him to emulate the crimes and extravagances of Nero rather than the virtues of his father.

Agricola having been sent into Britain towards the end of  
 78 Vespasian's reign, this excellent general showed  
 A.D. himself equally expert in quelling the refractory,  
 and civilizing those who had formerly submitted to the Roman power. He first subdued the Ordovices, or inhabitants of North Wales, and then made a descent upon Mona, or the island of Anglesey, which surrendered at discretion. Having thus rendered himself master of the whole country, he endeavoured to restore discipline to his own army, and to introduce some share of politeness among those whom he had conquered, and whom he exhorted, both by advice and ex-

ample, to build temples, theatres, and stately houses. He caused the sons of their nobility to be instructed in the liberal arts, and taught the Latin language, and induced them to imitate the Roman modes of dress and living. Thus this barbarous people began gradually to assume the luxurious manners of their conquerors, and afterwards even exceeded them in all the refinements of sensual pleasure.

In this reign happened an eruption of Mount Vesuvius, which entirely buried Herculaneum and Pompeii, and severely injured other towns. On this memorable occasion Pliny the naturalist lost his life. Titus died in the forty-first year of his age and the third of his reign, not without suspicion of treachery from his brother Domitian. The tears and lamentations of his people followed his obsequies. That he endeavoured to carry out his duty to his people while he occupied the throne, there can be little doubt; but whether he would have continued to do so, had he lived to old age, is altogether another question. Living in a vicious age, and not hedged in by the restraints which Christianity teaches men to impose on their passions, it would be strange indeed if Titus had not been imbued with some of the taints of the times. He was kind to his brother, who was constantly intriguing against him, and liberal to his people, especially in furnishing funds for the reparation of the injuries caused by the eruption of Vesuvius; and if he was indiscreet or criminal in youth, his conduct while on the throne atoned for the excesses in which he is said to have indulged. With speculations as to what a man might have been had he lived, history has no concern whatever.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Eruption of Vesuvius, and destruction of Pompeii .....	A. D. 79	Dedication of the Colos- seum .....	A. D. 80
Fire and Pestilence in Rome .....	„ 80	Death of Titus, and ac- cession of Domitian...	„ 81

## 3. DOMITIAN.

The beginning of Domitian's reign was equally remarkable for clemency, liberality, and justice; but the mask of dissimulation soon dropped off, and he appeared in all his natural

deformity. He instituted contests in music, horsemanship, and wrestling, and extended his patronage to men of letters and professors of the fine arts. He is said to have been an author himself, like his brother Titus, who wrote some poems and plays in Greek. He entertained the people with various and very expensive shows; and during these diversions he distributed great rewards, sitting as president, adorned with a purple robe and crown, and surrounded by the priests of Jupiter and the college of the Flavian priests. He usually spent his hours of retirement in catching flies, and sticking them through with a bodkin; and hence his chamberlain, being asked if the emperor was alone, answered that he had not so much as a fly to keep him company.

The successes of Agricola in Britain threw a lustre on the Roman arms, which affected Domitian with an extreme degree of envy. This admirable general, pursuing the advantages which he had already obtained, subdued the Caledonians, and overcame Galgacus, the British chief, at the head of 30,000 men. Afterwards, sending out a fleet to scour the coast, he discovered and subdued the Orkneys; and he thus reduced the whole into a civilized province of the Roman empire. The account of these successes was received by Domitian with seeming pleasure, but with real chagrin. He ordered him, indeed, external marks of approbation, and took care that triumphant ornaments, statues, and other honours should be decreed him; but, at the same time, he removed him from his command, under pretence of appointing him to the government of Syria, which he afterwards gave to another. Agricola died soon after in retirement, not without suspicion of violence by the emperor's direction. Domitian, however, soon found the want of so experienced a commander in the many irruptions of those barbarous nations which surrounded the empire.

The Sarmatians in Europe, joined with those in Asia, had made a formidable invasion of the north-eastern provinces of the empire in 69 A.D., while the rival emperors Galba, Otho, Vitellius, and Vespasian were engaged in the struggle one with another that ended with the enthronement of Vespasian. The Dacians, called Getæ by the Greeks, had also inflicted much injury on the frontier provinces on the south bank of the Danube at the same time, and in the first year of Domi-

tian's reign had renewed their attacks, under their king Decebalus, and worsted the Romans in several engagements. The limits of the empire, and the banks of the Danube, were not now the objects for which they contended, but even the provinces themselves were in danger. At length, however, the barbarians were repelled, partly by force, and partly by the assistance of money, which only induced them to make future invasions. Domitian returned in great splendour to Rome, and, not contented with triumphing twice without a victory, he assumed the name of Germanicus for a conquest over a people with whom he had never contended.

86

A.D.

91

A.D.

The cruelties of the emperor, many of which seemed almost without a motive, deservedly produced resistance, and induced Lucius Antonius Saturninus, governor of Upper Germany, to assume the ensigns of imperial dignity, and contend for the throne. But Antonius proving unsuccessful, Domitian's severity was greatly increased; and, in order to discover the accomplices of the adverse party, he caused those whom he suspected of complicity with the revolt of Saturninus to be subjected to terrible tortures. His extortion, which was a consequence of his prodigality, was unbounded, and, in particular, he exacted large sums of money from the rich Jews. By his letters and edicts he banished the Christians in several parts of the empire, and caused them to be put to death with all the tortures of ingenious cruelty. At length this monster fell a victim to assassination, and was murdered by a freedman named Stephanus, who had been introduced into his presence under pretence of discovering a conspiracy. The empress, in order to save her own life, had conducted the plot. Domitian perished on September 18, 96 A.D. He was nearly forty-five when he met with his end, and had just completed the fifteenth year of his reign.

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A.D.

95

A.D.

96

A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Agricola recalled from the government of Britain .....	A.D. 84	pretended victories over the Germans and Dacians .....	A.D. 91
Invasion of the Dacians under Decebalus .....	„ 86	Conspiracy of Lucius Antonius against Domitian.....	„ 93
Triumph of Domitian for			

Persecution of the Chris- tians .....	A.D. 95	Murder of Domitian by Stephanus and others A.D. 96
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## THE TWELVE CÆSARS.

Julius Cæsar (Dictator) B.C.	48	Galba .....	A.D. 68
Augustus (Emperor) ...	„ 27	Otho .....	„ 69
Tiberius .....	A.D. 14	Vitellius.....	„ 69
Caligula .....	„ 37	Vespasian .....	„ 69
Claudius.....	„ 41	Titus .....	„ 79
Nero .....	„ 54	Domitian .....	„ 81

## CHAPTER V.

## THE BEST OF THE EMPERORS.

96 A.D. to 192 A.D.

## 1. COCCEIUS NERVA.

No sooner was the death of Domitian publicly announced, than the senate, after causing all his inscriptions to be erased, his name struck out of the registers of fame, and his funeral omitted, immediately, with one voice, declared Marcus Cocceius Nerva emperor. This man, who was of an illustrious family, though not originally Roman, and above sixty-five years of age, was very remarkable for his virtues, moderation, and respect to the laws, and owed his exaltation solely to his blameless conduct.

On coming to the throne, he solemnly swore that, during his reign, no Roman senator should be put to death for any cause whatever. He released the cities of the empire from many severe duties, which his predecessors had imposed, and restored the property of those who had been unjustly dispossessed. He made several good laws and regulations; and, in every respect, he behaved like an indulgent father to his people. He permitted no statues to be erected to his honour, and converted into money such of Domitian's as had been spared by the senate. He sold many rich robes, and much of the splendid furniture of the palace, and retrenched several unreasonable expenses at court. At the same time, he paid so little regard to money, that when one of his subjects found a large

treasure, and submitted the disposal of it to the emperor, he received for answer, that he might *use it*; but the finder informing the emperor, that it was a fortune too large for a private person, Nerva admired his honesty, and wrote him word, that then he might *abuse it*.

The Prætorian Guards had had no share in the elevation of Nerva to the imperial throne, which had been the work of the senate only. Finding themselves unnoticed in the new arrangements, they began to thrust themselves prominently into notice by demanding the punishment of the assassins of Domitian, and they even went so far as to put some of them to death. Perceiving that in the then turbulent disposition of the times, he stood in need of an assistant in the empire, who might share the fatigues of government, and contribute to keep the licentious in awe, Nerva determined at once to appoint some able man as his adopted son and heir to the imperial crown, and to admit him forthwith to a share of the supreme power as his associate in the empire. His choice fell on Marcus Ulpius Trajanus, a just man and a thorough soldier, who was then commander-in-chief of the troops on the Rhine frontier. The knowledge that any mutiny would be handled far more severely by Trajan than by the aged emperor, kept the Prætorian Guards from further demonstrations against the imperial authority. Nerva, however, did not long enjoy his new dignity. He died about three months after the appointment of Trajan as his successor, highly esteemed for his generosity and moderation, and deservedly endeared to the good of every rank.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Nerva chosen emperor of Rome by the Roman Senate.....	A.D. 96	cessor and associate in the empire.....	A.D. 97
Trajan appointed his suc-		Death of Nerva and acces- sion of Trajan .....	„ 98

## 2. TRAJAN.

Though Trajan was born at the colony of Italica, near the modern Seville in Spain, his family was originally from Italy. He is supposed to have been born about 52 A.D., and when but a mere boy he accompanied his father in the expeditions against Parthia, under Corbulo, and against the Jews, under Vespasian. With such training the future emperor soon became a good soldier, and,

while yet very young, acquired a considerable reputation for military talents. When he was made general of the army in Lower Germany, one of the most considerable employments in the empire, he differed from the private tribune in no respect, except in his superior wisdom and virtue. The great qualities of his mind were heightened by all the advantages of person; and, with these endowments, he possessed a modesty which seemed peculiar to himself, and which rendered him apparently insensible to his excellent and numerous accomplishments. In short, Trajan is distinguished as the greatest and the best emperor that Rome ever saw. Others may have equalled him in war, and some may have been his rivals in clemency and goodness; but he was the only prince who united these talents in the greatest perfection, and who appears equally to engage our admiration and regard.

After the death of Nerva, the tranquillity which prevailed at Rome enabled him to remain for some little time on the Rhine frontier, and this he secured by establishing Ulpia Trajana and other colonies on the right bank of the river, throwing a bridge across it at Mayence, and surrounding with a mound and ditch extending from the Rhine to the Danube, a small territory which some Gauls and Roman adventurers had taken in the time of Tiberius and Drusus, and had held ever since under Roman protection. This portion of land beyond the Rhine was called the *Agri Decumates*, or "Tithed Lands." It answers pretty nearly to the southern

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A.D.

parts of Baden and Wurtemberg. After completing these important works, Trajan prepared to return to Rome, whither he was invited by the united entreaties of the state. He conducted his march with a discipline that had for a long time been unknown in the armies of the empire. He neither ravaged nor taxed the countries through which he passed; and he entered the city, not in triumph, though he had well deserved such an honour, but on foot, attended by the civil officers of the state, and followed by his soldiers, who marched silently forward with modesty and respect. With such a special favour was Trajan regarded by the senate, that a new name, that of *Optimus*, was assigned to him, as Augustus had been given to Octavian. His first act of power on his return to Rome was the punishment of the *Prætorian Guards*, who had mutinied against Nerva, of whom some were executed and others sent into exile.



The most rapid view of Trajan's actions would carry us beyond our limits. His application to business, his moderation to his enemies, his modesty in exaltation, his liberality to the deserving, and his frugality in his own expenses, have all been the subject of panegyric among his contemporaries, and continue to be the admiration of posterity. The first war in which he was engaged after his coming to the throne, was with the Dacians.

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After making great preparations, Trajan threw bridges of boats across the Danube, and entered the country of Decebalus, whom he defeated in several battles. At last Decebalus asked to be received into alliance with Rome, and this having been granted Trajan returned home and entered Rome in triumph for his Dacian victories (103 A.D.) The speedy infringement of the treaty by Decebalus, who recommenced his predatory incursions across the Danube as soon as Trajan's troops were withdrawn, rendered the complete subjugation of the country absolutely necessary. A broad and durable bridge, not of boats, as heretofore, but of solid stone piers, crowned by a causeway of wood, was thrown across the Danube, near Orsova, it is supposed; and when the means of ready access to the country was thus obtained, Trajan pushed forward to complete the conquest of Dacia. A single year sufficed for the work. The whole country was traversed and subdued, and Decebalus, the Dacian king, was slain and his head sent to Rome. As a memorial of his success, Trajan built a new Forum at Rome, which has since perished; but the column which stood in the centre of it, called "Trajan's column," and which was built as the tomb of its founder, as well as a record of his victories, is still standing.

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A.D.

Trajan now employed his attention on the internal affairs of the empire, and the next seven years were spent in regulating the internal affairs of the empire in all parts, and the construction of important public works, such as bridges, breakwaters at the entrance to harbours, and buildings of all kinds. The resources for these works were found in a wise administration of the imperial revenues, and a careful abstention from the waste and extravagance that had characterised most of the early emperors. The taxes were levied with fairness throughout the empire, and were not burdensome, and the public works that were inaugurated found employment

for all classes of the people. Thus a degree of contentment and happiness was produced to which the Romans had long been strangers.

Affairs, however, were in progress in the east which soon rendered it necessary for Trajan to take the field once more. Tiridates, it will be remembered, had accepted the throne of Armenia in Nero's time, as a vassal of Rome. On the death of this prince, Pacorus, the then king of Parthia, had placed his son Exedares upon the throne. This had happened about 101 A.D., when Trajan was about to enter on the Dacian war, and was unable to pay any attention to eastern affairs. He waited patiently until such time as the condition of the empire might warrant him in attempting to place Roman supremacy on as secure a footing in the east as he had on the European frontiers, and when the Parthian empire under Chosroes, the brother of Pacorus, showed signs of breaking up through internal organization, Trajan made the placing of Exedares on the throne of Armenia an excuse for war. Chosroes attempted to conciliate him by expelling Exedares from the throne, but nothing could hinder Trajan, who made his way to Antioch, where he nearly lost his life in the winter of 114 A.D., through an earthquake. Entering Armenia in the following year, he speedily subdued it and rendered it a Roman province, and then marched northward as far as the Caucasus. The principality of Edessa and Mesopotamia soon yielded to him, and he entered Assyria, which, like Armenia, was made a Roman province. In 116 A.D. Parthia was brought to his feet, and Parthamaspates placed on the throne, as a vassal of Rome, in the room of Chosroes. Prior to this a revolt of the Jews had broken out in many parts, which was suppressed with the greatest severity by Trajan's orders, in Egypt, Cyprus, Cyrene, and elsewhere. After the conquest of Parthia, Trajan, in 117 A.D., returned to Antioch, and soon after set out for Rome, but died on his way thither at Selinus, in Cilicia, on August 8. A wise and just prince, generally speaking, the worst stain on his character seems to have been the persecution of the Christians of Bithynia and other parts of the east, instituted in 106 A.D., by the emperor, at the instigation of Pliny. At the time of his death he was in the sixty-fifth year of his age, supposing him to have been born, as it has been said, in 53 A.D., and the twentieth of his reign.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Commencement of Trajan's war with the Dacians .....	A.D. 101	Parthia. Trajan at Antioch .....	A.D. 114
Decebalus killed and Dacia reduced to a Roman province .....	" 106	Armenia and Assyria made Roman provinces. Great rebellion of the Jews .....	" 115
Persecution of the Christians ordered by Trajan, at the instigation of Pliny .....	" 106	Parthia conquered and Parthamaspates placed on the throne .....	" 116
War declared against		Death of Trajan at Selinus in Cilicia .....	" 117

## 3. HADRIAN.

Trajan during his lifetime had always been reluctant to appoint a successor, and it was only on his deathbed that the Empress Plotina succeeded in obtaining his signature to a letter to the senate, intimating it as his wish that Publius Ælius Hadrianus should be raised to the imperial throne. Like Trajan, Hadrian was the descendant of Italians who had settled in Spain. He was born at Rome, January 24, 76 A.D., and his father was Trajan's first cousin. Dying while his son was yet a child, he left him to the guardianship of Trajan, under whom he commenced his military career, after receiving a liberal education. After filling many important offices, he was appointed governor of Syria, in 114 A.D., and on Trajan's departure from Antioch, a short time before his death, he was left in command of the troops in the east. It should be said that his previous ties of relationship to the late emperor's family had been strengthened by his marriage to Julia Sabina, Trajan's niece, about 99 A.D.

At the time of his accession, Hadrian had attained the age of forty-one. He was well skilled in the Greek and Latin languages, and intimately acquainted with the laws of his country, and the philosophy of the times. Having been elected emperor by the senate without a dissentient voice, and being a wise, far-seeing, and prudent administrator, he soon began to pursue a course entirely different from that of his predecessor, and took every method of declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. For this reason he abandoned all the recent conquests of Trajan, which he considered rather an inconvenience than an advantage to the empire, and made the river Euphrates the boundary of

the eastern provinces, placing troops along its banks, to prevent the incursions of the enemy. He retained, however, the new province of Arabia, formed out of Arabia Petrea by Trajan, as essential to the protection of Syria. After settling affairs in the east, he returned to Rome in 118 A.D.

On his return he found that the Scythians and Sarmatians were threatening the safety of the new province of Dacia, the maintenance of which was necessary as a bulwark of the empire in this direction, against the attacks of the tribes of the north. He marched thither at once, but the discovery of a conspiracy against his life, which was at once put an end to by the vigorous action of the senate, led to his speedy return,

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A.D.

after arranging terms with the barbarians. The defence of Dacia he entrusted to Martius Turbo, one of his most trusted friends and supporters, and an officer who had risen to the highest position under Trajan. It was now that he determined to visit every part of his dominions in person; for it was one of his maxims, that an emperor ought to imitate the sun, which diffuses warmth and vigour over all parts of the earth. In his progress he reformed all abuses, relieved his subjects of every oppressive burden, rebuilt the cities, and established in every country a regular and mild administration, under magistrates of approved integrity and humanity.

Hadrian, in his journey through his dominions, first directed his course to the western provinces, and having passed through Gaul, he made his way into Britain, already far advanced in the arts of civilization, which

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A.D.

lent distinction to the provinces nearer home. The northern part of the province, however, was constantly exposed to damage from the incursions of the Caledonians, or Picts and Scots, as they are also called, and Hadrian resolved to add to its security by building a rampart, crowned at intervals by forts, along a similar line of defence which had been constructed by Agricola, from the mouth of the Tyne to the Solway Frith. Leaving Britain, he passed through Spain, and crossed over into Mauretania, whose governor, Lusius Quietus, had shown signs of disaffection. Thence he journeyed to the Euphrates, where he had an interview with the Parthian king, Chosroes, who had regained his kingdom; and after visiting Asia Minor and Greece, returned to Rome in 123 A.D. Returning to Athens in 125 A.D., he

spent six years in the ancient capital of Greece, and did much to restore and beautify the city. In 131 A.D. he went to Alexandria, but quitted it in the following year to visit Palestine and Syria. After passing the winter of 133 A.D. at Athens, he returned once more to Rome in 134 A.D., never to quit it again.

During his residence at Athens and Alexandria, Hadrian, who was a man of enlightened mind and highly liberal spirit for the times in which he lived, lent an attentive ear to the exponents and apologists of Christianity, and although he was not induced to become a believer himself, extended his protection to the hitherto proscribed and persecuted followers of our Saviour, and gave orders that they should be permitted the free exercise of their religion in all parts of the Jewish empire. This gave bitter offence to the Jews, and may have had something to do in exciting the insurrection of Barcochebas, which took place in 132 A.D. In fact Hadrian had openly declared that the Christians were harmless and unworldly, compared with the seditious Jews, and the encouragement thus given to a sect that they bitterly hated, rendered them all the more ready to yield to the appeal of the first adventurer that sought to excite them to rebellion. The prohibition of the rite of circumcision, and the observance of the Sabbath, coupled with Hadrian's announced intention of building a temple to Jupiter, on Mount Moriah, set the Jewish world in a blaze, and when the rabbi Akiba and Barcochebas raised the standard of revolt, they flocked by thousands from Egypt, Cyprus, Cyrene, and other parts of the empire to Palestine. The struggle was sharp but short. Barcochebas, who was proclaimed king of Jerusalem, gained some successes at first, but was defeated by Julius Severus, and fell in battle. Immediately after the suppression of the revolt in 133 A.D., Jerusalem was made a Roman colony, under the name of *Ælia Capitolina*; the temple to Jupiter was built, as promised, on Mount Moriah, and the Jews were swept out of the Holy Land by the relentless Romans, and dispersed into all countries, north, south, east, and west, to become the scorn and the by-word of all nations, ancient and modern, until it shall please God, at his own time and in his own way, to gather the remnants of his once chosen and favoured people, and restore them to the possession of the land from which they were then so ruthlessly driven.

Hadrian seems to have been animated with an uncontrollable zeal for building. Into whatever city we follow him, we find him at his favourite work, and the fever for executing great public works was as strong upon him as ever when he returned to Rome in 134 A.D. He founded a Roman university under the name of the Athenæum, and built a mausoleum for himself on the right bank of the Tiber, which exists to this day, and is known in modern times as the Castle of St. Angelo. His greatest work, however, was the condensation of the edicts of the previous emperors and magistrates, into a well-executed digest of Roman law, which bore the name of the *Edictum Perpetuum*, or "Lasting Edict" of Hadrian. In this task he was assisted by the prætor *Salvius Julianus*.

The years passed quickly on and it was clear to all that Hadrian, whose life had been passed in unremitting toil and labour, could not hope for a much more lengthened career. Urged by the senate to nominate a successor, his choice fell on *Titus Aurelius Antoninus*, afterwards surnamed the Pious, whom he previously obliged to adopt his nephew, *Marcus Annius Verus*, thenceforward known as *Marcus Aurelius Antoninus* and *Lucius Aurelius Verus*. This was done early in 138 A.D. Scarcely had the succession been secured when Hadrian died, July 10, 138 A.D., of a disease which is supposed to have been dropsy. He is said to have expired repeating some beautiful stanzas of his own composing, on the separation of the soul from the body. He died in the sixty-second year of his age, and after a prosperous reign of twenty-one years, with the well-deserved reputation of being one of the best of the emperors under whose sway it was the good fortune of imperial Rome to pass.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of the Emperor Hadrian .....	A.D. 117	Visit of Hadrian to Alexandria .....	A.D. 131
Expedition against the Scythians and Sarma- tians .....	„ 119	Revolt of the Jews under Barcochebas .....	„ 132
Hadrian fortifies the northern frontier of Britain .....	„ 120	Jerusalem made a Ro- man colony. Banish- ment of the Jews .....	„ 133
Return of Hadrian from the east to Rome .....	„ 123	Return of Hadrian to Rome .....	„ 134
Hadrian resides in Athens from 125 to ...	„ 131	Adoption of <i>Titus Aure- lius Antoninus</i> .....	„ 135
		Death of Hadrian .....	„ 136

## 4. ANTONINUS, SURNAMED PIUS.

Titus Aurelius Antoninus, who now succeeded to the imperial throne, was born at Lanuvium, a town of Latium, September 19, 86 A.D. His family had resided for many years at Nemausus, now Nismes, in Gaul. 139  
A.D.

He was above fifty years old at the death of Adrian, but had had considerable experience in administration at home and abroad, having been appointed, with three others, by Hadrian to govern Italy, and administer justice during his absence from the capital, and subsequently to the government of Asia. His wife was named Faustina. His children had all died when young. This rendered necessary the adoption of Marcus Annius Verus, afterwards known as Marcus Aurelius Antoninus, to whom he gave his daughter Annia Faustina in marriage. He associated his son-in-law with himself in the exercise of the tribunitian functions in 147 A.D. His virtues in private life were only rendered more conspicuous by his exaltation; and he was distinguished for justice, clemency, moderation, purity of morals, and piety to the gods. He was both revered and loved by mankind, and reckoned a patron and father of his subjects. He showed no less paternal care towards the oppressed Christians, whom he declared no one should disturb on account of their religion. This clemency was attended with no less affability and freedom; but at the same time, he took particular care that his indulgence to his friends should not tempt them into insolence or oppression. He would not permit his courtiers to sell their favours, nor receive any gratuity from their suitors. During a great famine in Rome he provided for the wants of the people, and maintained an immense number with bread and wine. His reign was an eminently peaceful one—that is to say, a reign in which Rome abstained from aggressions on neighbouring states and tribes—for, although the emperor liked peace better than war, he was fully alive to the maintenance of the national honour, and punished promptly and severely, by means of his generals, risings and attacks on the frontiers of Britain, Germany, and Dacia. Lollius Urbicus, in Britain, marched northwards to punish the Picts and Scots, and repaired the fortifications that Agricola had raised between the Firths of Forth and Clyde. 155  
A.D.

Lagi, beyond the river Phasis, accepted a king nominated by Antoninus, while protection was afforded to the cities on the northern shores of the Black Sea against the Scythians. The Parthians under Volagases II. and Volagases III. showed a disposition to occupy Armenia, and the former demanded the restitution of the golden throne of Parthia, which had been carried off by Trajan, and whose restoration had been promised by Hadrian. The firmness of the emperor, however, who refused to satisfy the demands of the Parthians in any single point, sufficed to keep them quiet as long as he remained at the head of affairs. But, despite his firmness, so great a lover of peace was he, that if any person attempted to inflame him with a passion for military glory, he only answered "that he more desired the preservation of one subject than the destruction of a thousand enemies." He was an eminent rewarder of learned men, whom he invited from all parts of the world, and raised to wealth and opulence. He studied rather to defend the Roman empire than to enlarge its boundaries—to make his people contented than to cause them to be feared. Whilst this exemplary prince was thus employed in rendering mankind happy he was seized with gastric fever, at Lorium, in Etruria, of which he died March 7, 161 A.D., in the seventy-fifth year of his age, and after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years and almost eight months. Antoninus was unfortunate in his empress, Faustina, who was a woman of dissolute character. She died in 141 A.D., three years after her husband's accession.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Terrible Famine at Rome A.D. 155 | Death of Antoninus ... A.D. 161

#### 5. MARCUS AURELIUS, CALLED THE PHILOSOPHER.

Marcus Aurelius, the adopted son of the late emperor, was descended from a Spanish family which had settled in Rome. His grandfather had held numerous offices under Hadrian, and in 126 A.D. had been appointed prefect of the Prætorian guards. He was born April 20, 121 A.D., and was brought up by his grandfather in consequence of the early death of his father. In 145 A.D. he married Annia Faustina, daughter of Antoninus, by whom he had two sons, Annianus and Com-



modus. The latter was not born until August 31, 161, and succeeded his father on the imperial throne.

Though left sole successor to the throne, he admitted Lucius Verus as his associate in the empire ; and Rome, for the first time, saw itself governed by two sovereigns of equal power, but of very different merit and pretensions. Aurelius was as remarkable for his virtues and accomplishments as Verus was for his ungovernable passions and debauched morals. The former was an example of the greatest goodness and wisdom ; the latter, of ignorance, indolence, and dissipation.

No sooner were the two emperors settled on the throne than the Parthians under Volagases III. made an irruption into Armenia and Syria, destroying the Roman legions, and expelling the Roman governors. In Armenia, Soæmus, who occupied the throne under Roman protection, was expelled, and Tigranes, who was regarded by the Armenians as their rightful king, raised to power. In order to stop the progress of this barbarous invasion, Verus went in person, but, thoughtless of the urgency of the expedition, he plunged himself into every kind of debauchery, and left all the glory of the field to his lieutenants, Statius Priscus, Avidius Cassius, and Martius Verus, who were sent to repress the enemy.

Avidius Cassius, who conducted the operations in Syria, defeated the Parthians in a great battle near Europus in 163 A.D., and drove them back in disorder across the Euphrates. The other legates, Priscus and Verus, brought the war to a successful issue in Armenia, and replaced Soæmus on the throne. Cassius, however, was not content with the defence of Roman territory : he invaded Parthia, won a second great battle at Sura, in Mesopotamia, occupied Babylon, and took and burnt Seleucia on the Tigris. He also crossed the Zagros Mountains, and occupied part of Media. The positive result of the war was the cession by Parthia to Rome of Western Mesopotamia, or that part of Mesopotamia which was between the Euphrates and the Khabour. This, however, was more than counterbalanced by the misery which was brought on the empire by the troops on their return from the East.

The army carried back the plague from Parthia, and disseminated the infection in all the provinces through which it passed. It may be as well to pause here to

say that Verus, who had returned to Rome in 164 A.D., to hold a triumph for the victories gained by his lieutenants, was permitted to take no leading part in the government from this time, and ultimately died of apoplexy, having reigned eight years in conjunction with Aurelius.

The plague—that raged with uncontrollable fury throughout the Eastern provinces of the empire, and in Italy, and the adjacent parts—was attributed to the Christians, and a fierce persecution was set on foot, at home and abroad. In the midst of these excesses news came that the Marcomanni and Quadi were threatening the frontier, and Aurelius prepared to march against them. He was unable to proceed farther than Aquileia, where the soldiers died as fast as they arrived of the raging pestilence. It was while the Romans were awaiting a cessation of the evil to enable them to move northwards that Verus died.

Aurelius, who had hitherto felt the fatigues, not only of governing the empire, but of controlling an unworthy colleague, being now left to himself, began to act with still greater diligence and success. Relieved by the disappearance of the plague, he marched against the Marcomanni, the Quadi, the Sarmatians, the Vandals, and other barbarians, who had renewed hostilities with unusual rage and devastation, and

whom, after some years of warfare, he constrained to accept such terms of peace as he thought fit to propose. His victories over the tribes of the North were commemorated by the erection of a column similar to that of Trajan, but smaller, which is still standing at Rome.

It has been often urged that the possession of power, especially when the exercise of that power is subject to no control, or is exercised at so great a distance from the superior force that should hold it in check as to be virtually without control, is apt to spoil the best-intentioned men, much more those in whom ambition or any other passion is inherent. This seems to have been the case with Avidius Cassius, the conqueror of Parthia, who had been left in the East with the

sole control of Syria; for while Aurelius was yet in Pannonia he conceived the design of raising himself to the throne; and on receiving a report of the emperor's death, announced himself to his officers and soldiers as his successor. They, however, were by no means disposed,

as a body, to countenance the schemes of their general. A conspiracy was formed against him, and he was killed, and his head sent to Aurelius. It is sad to relate that it is believed that his conduct was prompted by the Empress Faustina, unworthy daughter of an unworthy mother, who had offered him her hand as the price of the dethronement of her good and just husband. She died in the East, 176  
whither she had accompanied Aurelius, whose presence there was necessary to settle the disorganization that ensued after the death of Cassius. He returned to Rome in the autumn of the year to hold a triumph for his victories over the Marcomanni, Sarmatians, Quadi, and other northern tribes; and in the following year he associated his son Commodus, who was only sixteen years of age, with himself in the tribunitian power. It was in this year (177 A.D.) that the second great persecution of the Christians under Aurelius took place.

The end of his reign was now rapidly approaching. Fresh incursions of the barbarians of the North, who were perpetually harassing the northern frontiers, called him to initiate fresh measures against them. After witnessing the marriage of his son with Crispina, he hastened with him to the scene of action. The war commenced, but of what took place little is known with certainty. In the midst of it the emperor died of fever at Sirmium, in Pannonia, in the fifty-ninth year of his age, and after reigning a little more than nineteen years, during eight years of which the government was shared by Lucius Verus, who had married the emperor's daughter Lucilla.

Aurelius died March 17, 180 A.D., not without a suspicion that he was removed by his physicians at the desire of his son Commodus, and the glory and prosperity of the Roman empire seemed to die with him. From this period we behold a train of emperors either vicious or impotent; an empire grown too great, sinking by its own weight, surrounded by barbarous and successful enemies without, and torn by ambitious and cruel factions within; the principles of the times wholly corrupted; philosophy attempting to regulate the minds of men without the aid of religion; and the warmth of patriotism, as well as the flame of genius, gradually verging to extinction. Imperialism, which had already brought great evils on Rome, was yet to bring greater.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

<i>Assassination of Marcus Antoninus, called the Philanthropist and the Good Father, the son-in-law, in first century.</i>	A.D. 161	<i>War with Marcianus, Jewish and Christian tribes engaged by the plague.</i>	A.D. 161
<i>Assault of the Parthians on Syria and Armenia.</i>	" 161	<i>So, brought to a temporary close.</i>	" 162
<i>Emperors of Rome the Sea-Road.</i>	" 162	<i>Death of Marcus.</i>	" 162
<i>Raid of Parthians on the Euphrates by Avidius Cassius—Parthians return back over Euphrates.</i>	" 163	<i>Revolt and death of Avidius Cassius, the governor of Syria.</i>	" 163
<i>Western Manichæism annexed to the Roman Empire by Cassius.</i>	" 165	<i>Visit of Marcus Aurelius to the East—Death of the Emperor Marcus.</i>	" 165
<i>Return of Marcus from the East in triumph over the Parthians.</i>	" 164	<i>Commotion connected with his father in the tribulation power.</i>	" 167
<i>Plague disseminated in all parts of the Roman Empire by the returning soldiers.</i>	" 168	<i>Second great persecution of the Christians under Aurelius.</i>	" 167
<i>First great persecution of the Christians under Aurelius.</i>	" 167	<i>Renewal of war with the Marcianus, Jewish, &amp;c.</i>	" 169
		<i>Death of Marcus Aurelius, and accession of Commodus.</i>	" 180

## 6. COMMODOUS.

To preserve unbroken the succession of the Antonines, a chapter devoted to the records of the "best of the emperors" must include within its limits a notice of the reign of one of the worst of them—the reign of Commodus, the worthless son of an excellent father, who succeeded him in his imperial honours when he was in his nineteenth year. In him the vices of his mother and grandmother blossomed anew, and bore bitter fruit: but not one of the virtues of his father exhibited itself. The first act of the young emperor was to arrange terms of peace with the barbarian tribes, after which he hastened to the capital, leaving the future defence of the frontier to be looked after by his lieutenants. Of these, Clodius Albinus and Pescennius Niger successfully protected Dacia during the attacks of the barbarians in 182 and 183 A.D., and in 184 an inroad of the Caledonians was checked in 184 by

Ulpian Marcellus. On the frontiers on all sides the enemies of the empire were held in check by the Roman generals, while disaffection, which reared its head from time to time in the frontier provinces, was sternly trampled out; but at home their successes were neutralised by the misgovernment of Commodus, who traded on their fame, and held triumph after triumph in the imperial city in virtue of victories in which he had no share.

To return, however, to the beginning of his reign. His reappearance at Rome was the signal for a general outburst of enthusiasm among all classes, and public confidence was secured by the maintenance of the government in the hands of his father's counsellors. Eager in the pursuit of pleasure, Commodus meddled but little in the affairs of state, until a conspiracy formed against him by his sister Lucilla, the widow of Verus, and then the wife of Claudius Pompeianus, roused all the cruelty and ferocity which lay dormant in his disposition. The assassin who had been chosen to dispatch him had accompanied the ill-dealt blow with the words, "The senate sends you this;" and the suspicions of Commodus being thus directed against this body, he took terrible reprisals on the leading members. The suspicion of evil to come which had long haunted the most thoughtful of the Roman citizens now deepened into certainty, and distress at home was aggravated by the fresh outbreaks of both famine and pestilence. The favourites of the emperor and the Prætorian guards wielded the government, the worst of the former being a Phrygian, Cleander, who had won favour with the emperor by pandering to his vices, and with the people by supplying them with amusements free of cost. The means to do this were obtained by a traffic in the offices of state, high and low, which he carried on openly. He was sacrificed in consequence of an outbreak of the populace, caused by the want and destitution that then prevailed among the lower classes, and the insolence of the Prætorian guards (189 A.D.).

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A.D.

186

A.D.

The emperor himself was seldom seen out of the amphitheatre or circus, where he delighted to make exhibition of his dexterity as an archer, being so skilful in this respect as to be able to stop an ostrich in its swift career by striking its head from its body by an arrow headed with a broad keen blade. He fought frequently in the public games as a gladi-

tor, but with precautions to insure his safety, his opponents being usually armed with useless weapons. His impiety—if assumption of the name and attributes of a heathen deity may be so termed—was only equalled by his folly and wickedness. Proud of his strength and address in the arena, he chose to be called Hercules, and placed the head of this god upon his statues, and stamped his club and lion's skin upon his coins. At last, in his conceit, he resolved to alter the names of the months of the year, re-naming them after his own titles and appellations; and, to celebrate the change, he resolved to kill the consuls-designate and others who were obnoxious to him at the beginning of the coming year, 193 A.D., and to march to the Capitol with all the gladiators of Rome behind him. His mistress Marcia and others to whom he had confided his design strove in vain to turn him from his purpose, and, with the cruelty that appointed death as the fate of all who dared to thwart him in his wishes, he added their names to a list of those appointed to die in the coming celebration. This list was found and taken to Marcia by a child who had been playing in the room where Commodus had accidentally dropped it. The girl, angry and frightened, showed it to some of the officers of the palace whom Commodus had thus sentenced, and the thirst for revenge predominating at last over fear, they resolved to save themselves at the expense of the tyrant. The last day of the old year was hastening to its close when Commodus, wearied with practice in the amphitheatre, returned to the palace and called for wine. A cup, deadly with poison, was brought to him by Marcia, who watched the disappearance of the fatal draught with fear and trembling, lest a movement should betray her to the suspicious man who was swallowing it with greedy relish. Worn with fatigue, he flung himself on a couch to sleep, and there he entered on the slumber which must last for him throughout time, for Marcia, fearful of a temporary waking and the scene that might follow, should he believe himself to be dying, had him strangled as he slept by a wrestler named Narcissus.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Various wars carried on in Britain, Dacia, Ger- many, &c. .... A.D. 182—4	{ life of Commodus by order of Lucilla ..... A.D. 183 Famine and pestilence in Rome ..... .. 186
Attempt made on the	

Cleander, prefect of the Prætorian guards, put to death .....	A.D. 189	Commodus poisoned by Marcia, Decem- ber 31 .....	A.D. 192
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## EMPERORS FROM NERVA TO COMMODUS.

Nerva .....	A.D. 96	Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus .....	A.D. 161
Trajan .....	" 98	Marcus Aurelius (alone) ..	169
Hadrian .....	" 117	Commodus .....	" 180
Antoninus Pius .....	" 138		

## CHAPTER VI.

## MILITARY DESPOTISM AT ROME.

193 A.D. to 249 A.D.

## 1. HELVIUS PERTINAX.—THE CROWN, WHO SHALL HAVE IT?

On the 1st of January, 193, the citizens of Rome were fated to hear strange things! Commodus was dead—dead of apoplexy it was reported and believed at first, but it was not long before the truth oozed out. The event was as sudden as it was unexpected. Who was to be the next emperor? The conspirators had already settled this by offering the crown to an old friend and counsellor of Marcus Aurelius, Helvius Pertinax by name, who held the post of prefect of the city. He would as soon have died as accepted the empire, but there seemed to be danger of anarchy if he refused to do so, and he gave in to their wishes. His accession was hailed with delight by everyone except the Prætorian guards, who held aloof, and waited their time in sullen silence. Pertinax was in the sixty-eighth year of his age when he began his reign; and though a man of mean birth, he had risen to esteem by his virtues and military talents. He applied himself with zeal to the correction of abuses; and his success in foreign affairs was equal to his internal policy. But the Prætorian guards, whose manners he attempted to reform, and who had been long corrupted by the indulgence and profusion of former monarchs, began to hate him for the parsimony and discipline which he introduced among them, and resolved to dethrone him. Accordingly they marched in a tumultuous manner through the streets of Rome, and enter-

193  
A.D.

ing the palace without opposition, struck the emperor, who fell mangled with a multitude of wounds, March 28, 193, after a reign of barely three months. Thus died Pertinax, who, from the number of his adventures, was called the Tennis-ball of Fortune.

The Prætorian guards of the capital then made proclamation that they would sell the empire to the highest bidder, and accordingly it was literally knocked down to Didius Julianus, a rich citizen, for 6,250 drachms, to be immediately paid to each of the soldiers.\* Didius gave himself up to ease and inactivity, utterly regardless of the duties of his station; but he was still followed by that avarice by which he had become opulent, and which soon rendered him contemptible to the army.

The able officers of Commodus and his predecessors, who had no scruple of transferring their allegiance to a man like Pertinax, chafed with rage on hearing how things were going at Rome, and how the guards of the capital had presumed to impose an emperor on the empire for the sake of a paltry sum of money. Whose should the empire be? questioned the imperial generals, and the secret response of more than one was—*Mine!* In fact, as soon as the news came that Didius was on the throne, Pescennius Niger in Syria, Clodius Albinus in Britain, and Septimius Severus in Illyricum, were each chosen emperor by the troops under his command. Severus, who was nearest to Rome, hastened towards the capital with his legions; and on his approach the senate, perceiving the timidity and weakness of Didius, began to abandon him, declaring that he who could not defend the empire was unworthy to govern it. Didius, therefore, being put to death on June 2, 193 A.D., after a shorter reign than that of his predecessor, the senate sent ambassadors to Severus, yielding him obedience, and granting him the insignia and the usual titles of empire. The Roman Prætorian guards were disbanded, and the ringleaders in the late proceedings were punished.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Helvius Pertinax .....	Jan. 1, A.D. 193	Death of Didius Julia- nus, and accession of Lucius Septimius Se- verus.....	June 2, A.D. 193
Death of Pertinax, and accession of Didius	Mar. 28, ,, 193		

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\* The whole sum paid by Didius amounted to about two millions of our money.



## 2. LUCIUS SEPTIMIUS SEVERUS.

The new emperor, who was a man of liberal education and great military talent, was born at Septis, in Africa, in 146 A.D., and was about forty-seven years of age when he ascended the throne. Having made himself master of Rome, he prepared to reduce the provinces which had acknowledged the sovereignty of Niger and of Albinus. Knowing that Albinus was less to be dreaded as an active enemy than Niger, he resolved to temporize with him; and, to gain time to prosecute his designs against the latter, he offered the former the succession to the throne, with the title of Cæsar, which was accepted. He then marched eastward, and, having joined battle with his adversary, defeated him at Issus in 194 A.D. Byzantium, however, whose inhabitants had supported Niger, was not taken until 196 A.D., after a siege of three years. Severus then made the pretext of the discovery of a plot against his life an excuse for attacking Albinus, who fell in a great battle near Lyon in 197 A.D.

He next turned his arms against the Parthians, who were invading the frontiers of the empire, and whom he attacked with his usual celerity and success. He took Ctesiphon, and after defeating them, and receiving the submission of the kings of Arabia and Mesopotamia, he returned to Rome, where he erected the triumphal arch which bears his name as a memorial of his victories. A violent persecution of the Christians followed his return from the East in 202 A.D. The next six years were spent in regulating the internal affairs of the empire. In doing this he contrived and set going a military despotism more stringent and complete than any which had yet held Rome in thralldom. His chief minister always held the post of prefect of the Prætorian guards; the authority of the senate dwindled to nothing. Towards the close of his life he undertook an expedition into Britain, and marching against the Caledonians, who had cruelly harassed the Roman settlements, compelled them to sue for peace. For the better security of Britain, he repaired that famous wall which is still called by his name, and which extends from Solway Frith on the west to the German Ocean on the east. This wall, it is needless to observe, is that which was first planned by Agricola, and renewed by Hadrian. He was taken ill at

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A.D.208  
A.D.

York, and, feeling his end approaching, said :—" When I took the empire upon me, I found it declining and exhausted ; I now leave it strong and lasting to my sons, if they prove virtuous, but feeble and desperate, if otherwise." He died soon after on February 4, 211 A.D., in the sixty-fifth year of his age and the eighteenth year of his reign, in which he had displayed considerable talents and virtues, mixed with many blemishes.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of the Emperor Lucius Septimius Severus.....	A.D. 193	against the Parthians, and others .....	A.D. 196
Defeat of Pescennius Niger at Issus .....	" 194	Return from the East, and persecution of the Christians .....	" 202
Defeat of Albinus near Lyon .....	" 197	Expedition against the Caledonians .....	" 206
Expedition of Severus		Death of Severus at York ..	211

### 3. MARCUS AURELIUS CARACALLA AND SEPTIMIUS GETA.

Caracalla and Geta, the sons of Severus, were respectively twenty-three and twenty-two at their father's death.

**211** The name by which the former has become known  
A.D. in history is a nickname given him by the soldiers

of the empire from the long tunic which he habitually wore, and which was the common dress of the Gauls. Being left joint heirs to the empire, the brothers soon showed a mutual hatred to each other ; and Rome experienced the dangerous effects of being governed by two princes of equal power and contrary dispositions. Caracalla, however, being resolved to govern alone, furiously entered Geta's apartment, and, followed by ruffians, slew him in his mother's arms (212 A.D.). This monster soon exceeded the enormities of Domitian or of Nero.

Lælius, who advised him to murder his brother, was the first that fell a sacrifice to his jealousy ; his own wife, Plautina, followed ; and Papinian, a renowned civilian, was beheaded for refusing to write in vindication of his cruelty, answering the emperor's request by observing " that it was much easier to commit a parricide than to defend it." He commanded all governors appointed by his brother to be slain, and put to death not less than two thousand of his adherents. He spent whole nights in the execution of his bloody decrees, and the dead bodies of people, of all ranks,

were carried out of the city in carts, and burnt in heaps, without the customary rites. Upon a certain occasion he ordered his soldiers to attack a crowded audience in the theatre, merely because they discountenanced a charioteer whom he happened to favour. He perceived that he was hated by the people, and publicly declared "that he could insure his own safety, though not their love; so that he neither valued their reproaches, nor feared their hatred."

After exhausting the treasury, draining the provinces, and committing a thousand acts of rapacity, merely to retain his soldiers in his interest, he resolved to lead them upon a visit through every part of the empire. In Germany he dressed himself in the habit of the country, that he might oblige the natives. In Macedonia he pretended to be a great admirer of Alexander the Great, whose statue he caused to be made with two faces, one of which resembled Alexander, and the other himself; and he was so corrupted by flattery that he called himself Alexander, and affected the walk and gesture of that hero. In the amphitheatre at Alexandria, in Egypt, he cut off great numbers, only for having passed some jests upon his person and vices; and the slaughter was so great that the streams of blood tinged the waters of the Nile. His reign, which was of six years' duration, was one continued scene of atrocities, and was at length terminated by assassination.

He was murdered when on a journey from Edessa to the Temple of the Moon at Charrhæ by Mentalis, who had been ordered to commit the act by Opilius Macrinus, the prefect of the Prætorian guards, March 8, 217 A.D. During his absence the regulation of the empire had been undertaken by his mother Julia Domna, who put herself to death when the news of her unworthy son's murder reached her.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Caracalla and Geta .....	A.D. 211	on a tour through the empire .....	A.D. 213
Murder of Geta by Caracalla .....	„ 212	Caracalla murdered by order of the prefect Macrinus .....	„ 217
Departure of Caracalla .....			

#### 4. MARCUS OPILIUS MACRINUS.

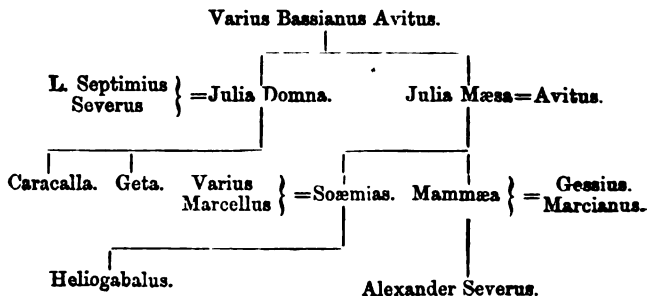
The military having now monopolized all power to themselves, invested Macrinus, who was fifty-three years of age,

and of obscure parentage, with the purple, and the senate confirmed the choice. They also consented to the adoption of his son Diadumenianus, whom he took as a partner in the empire. The Roman army was now arrived at such a pitch of licentiousness that the most gentle inflictions were considered as severities; and the soldiers, becoming dissatisfied with the discipline that he enjoined, were soon as ready to countenance any new claimant of the imperial honours as they had supported him. One was found in the person of Elagabalus, or Heliogabalus, so called from the sun, whose priest he was at Emesa. His grandmother, Julia Mæsa,\* was the sister of Julia Domna, the wife of Severus. She had been living at Antioch with her daughters Soæmias and Mammæa, but, on being banished from that city, retired with her family to Emesa. There the son of Soæmias, whose father was a Roman named Varius Marcellus, attracted the notice of the soldiers by his great beauty and likeness to Caracalla; and declaring that he was the dead emperor's son, which he and his mother took no pains to deny, they proclaimed him in opposition to Macrinus in May, 218. His cause was eagerly supported in Syria. Macrinus hastened from Antioch to give battle to his supporters, but, being defeated, fled from the field, was taken with his son, and put to death, June 7, 218 A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Defeat and death of Macrinus and his son..... A.D. 218

\* The table below will show the connection between the emperors from Septimius Severus to Alexander Severus:—



## 5. HELIOGABALUS.

The appointment of the army controlling, as usual, the decision of the senate and citizens of Rome, Helio-  
gabalus ascended the throne at the age of fourteen 218  
years. He was entirely directed by favourites, and A.D.  
was a monster of sensuality. His short life, therefore, is only  
a tissue of effeminacy, lust, folly, and extravagance. In the  
space of four years he married six wives, and divorced them  
all; and he even assumed the quality of a woman, and mar-  
ried one of his officers. He built a senate-house for women,  
with suitable orders, habits, and distinctions, and made his  
mother president. To these follies he added extreme cruelty  
and boundless prodigality. His suppers generally cost 6,000  
crowns, and often 60,000; he always dressed in cloth of gold  
and purple, enriched with precious stones, and never wore the  
same habit twice; and his palace, his chambers, and his beds  
were all furnished with the richest stuffs, covered with gold  
and jewels. In short, all his government, actions, dress, and  
furniture testified the extravagant folly of a wanton and  
vicious boy. Thus, sometimes he was seen driving elephants  
yoked to his chariot, sometimes mastiff dogs, and sometimes  
lions. In testimony of the magnitude of the city, he caused  
10,000 pounds weight of spiders' webs to be collected. He  
even invited his guests in the same spirit of absurdity; for he  
gave a feast to eight old men, eight bald men, eight blind  
men of one eye, eight lame with the gout, eight deaf men,  
eight black, and eight so fat that they could scarcely sit at the  
same table. To these childish tricks, which might pass for  
harmless follies, he united malevolence in every entertainment.  
He often smothered his guests in rooms filled with roses, and  
terrified them by letting loose wild beasts among them, pre-  
viously deprived of their teeth and claws. It is even said  
that he strove to foretell what was to happen, by inspecting  
the entrails of young men sacrificed, and that he chose the  
most beautiful youths throughout Italy to be slain for that  
purpose. By the advice of his grandmother, Julia Mæsa, he  
adopted his cousin Alexianus, the son of his aunt Mammæa,  
by the name of Marcus Aurelius Alexander, as his successor,  
who so greatly endeared himself to the people and the army  
that the soldiers, in consequence of a plot contrived by Helio-  
gabalus to destroy his cousin, rose in insurrection against him

in March, 232 A.D., and assassinated him, after a detestable reign of nearly four years. His body was thrown into the Tiber, with heavy weights attached to it, that none might afterwards bury it, and his memory was declared infamous by the senate.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Heliogabalus .....	A.D. 218	Assassination of Heliogabalus .....	A.D. 222
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#### 6. ALEXANDER SEVERUS.

Alexander, who assumed the name of his great-uncle Severus, was declared emperor without any opposition, and few princes have deserved greater commendations. He combined the greatest humanity with the most rigid justice. He encouraged the good, and severely reprobated the abandoned and the infamous. He was an excellent mathematician, geometrician, and musician, and was equally skilful in painting, sculpture, and poetry. In short, such were his talents, and the soundness of his judgment, that, though only sixteen years old when he began to reign, he possessed all the premature wisdom of age.

He spent the first part of his reign in reforming the abuses of his predecessors, and particularly in restoring the senators to their rank and influence. Merit was the only passport to his protection, and he would not permit offices or places to be purchased with money. "I cannot," said he, "bear to see merchants in authority; if I first allow them to be such, I cannot afterwards condemn their conduct; for how could I punish the person who sold, when I first permitted him to be a buyer?" He was, therefore, a rigid punisher of such magistrates as took bribes, saying that it was not enough to deprive such of their places, but that their lives in most cases ought to pay for a breach of their duty. On the contrary, he thought that he could never sufficiently reward such as were remarkable for their justice and integrity, keeping a register of their names, and encouraging those who seemed modest and unwilling to approach him. He extended his clemency even to the Christians, who had been punished in the former reign with unrelenting barbarity. A contest happening between them and a company of cooks and vintners about a piece of ground, which the one claimed as a place of worship, and the

other for exercising their respective trades, he decided the dispute by his rescript in the following words :—"It is better that God be worshipped there in any manner, than that the place should be put to uses of drunkenness or debauchery."

He was scarcely seated on the throne when troubles beset him, created by the very men who had raised him to his high position. His attempt to restore discipline in the ranks of the Prætorian guards caused a conflict in Rome, which lasted three days, and so insolent were the soldiers that they killed their prefect, Ulpian, in the very presence of the emperor. His abilities in war were inferior to his assiduity in peace; but he was by no means cowardly, and always faced danger wherever it presented itself.

In the East the power of Rome's old enemy, Parthia, was no more, for in 226 A.D. Ardshir, or Artaxerxes, the king, or more probably viceroy, of Persia under the last of the Parthian monarchs, had succeeded in overthrowing it, and establishing a new Persian empire, and founding the dynasty of the Sassanidæ. It was not long before the new ruler of the new empire came into collision with the Romans on the western limits of his possessions, and sought to retake Mesopotamia from Rome. On this Alexander Severus pro-

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A.D.

ceeded at once to the East. The details of the campaign are not extant, but there is reason to believe that Alexander was victorious over Ardshir. At all events, he returned to Rome and enjoyed a triumph, and peace was concluded with Persia. His end was a

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A.D.

sad one, and totally undeserved. There was in the army a Thracian named Maximin, of enormous strength and powers of endurance, who had attracted the notice of Septimius Severus when but a lad, and had been enrolled in the barbarian cavalry that formed the body-guard of the Roman emperors. Step by step he had risen in military rank, and ultimately received the command of the troops stationed on the Rhine. A rebellion having broken out among the Germans, many of whom crossed the river, Alexander Severus hastened to the spot, but, instead of fighting, made terms with his opponents. This was regarded by Maximin and the soldiers as a proof of weakness and an act worthy only of a woman, and the troops, persuaded by their general, broke into insurrection and proclaimed him emperor. Immediately afterwards Alexander and his mother were put to death at a place

called Sicila, in Gaul. Alexander perished March 19, 235 A.D., after a reign of thirteen years, and aged about twenty-nine.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Alexander Severus .....	A.D. 222	Collision between Persia and Rome. Alexander goes to the East .....	A.D. 231
Murder of Ulpian by the Prætorian guards .....	„ 222	Triumph of Alexander for victories over Persians .....	„ 233
Overthrow of Parthia, and establishment of the new empire of Persia .....	„ 226	Alexander murdered by the soldiers .....	„ 235

#### 7. MAXIMIN, THE GORDIANS, PUPIENUS, AND BALBINUS.

Caius Julius Verus Maximinus, more commonly known as Maximin, who had been the chief promoter of the sedition in which Alexander Severus had lost his life, was elected emperor by the army, though the senate and people of Rome refused to confirm the choice of the soldiers. This extraordinary man was the son of a poor herdsman of Thrace, and in the early part of his life followed the humble profession of his father. After enlisting into the Roman army, he soon became remarkable for his great strength and courage. He was eight feet and a half high, and was not more remarkable for the magnitude, than the symmetry of his person. He was able to draw a carriage which two oxen could not move. He commonly ate forty pounds weight of flesh every day, and drank six gallons of wine, without committing any debauch. With so athletic a frame, he possessed an independent and undaunted mind. He was the first emperor that reigned without the concurrence or approbation of the Roman senate. He seemed regardless of their opposition, and put all such to death as had been raised by his predecessor. He also extended his cruelty to the rich, whose lives and estates were sacrificed to avarice and suspicion.

However, his cruelties did not retard his military operations, which were carried on with a spirit becoming a better monarch. He overthrew the Germans in several engagements, wasted all their country with fire and sword for four hundred miles together, and formed a resolution of subduing all the northern nations as far as the



ocean. In these expeditions he endeavoured to attach the soldiers more firmly to him, by increasing their pay; and in every duty of the camp he himself took as much pains as the meanest sentinel in his army. Wherever the conflict was hottest, there Maximin was seen fighting in person, and destroying all before him; for, according to the notions in which he had been bred, he considered it as much his duty to combat as a common soldier as to command as a general.

In the meantime, the Christians, who had found favour in the former reign, felt the weight of his resentment, and were persecuted in several parts of the empire. What, however, fixed an indelible disgrace on his memory, was his commanding his early friends, and the friends of his parents, to be put to death, that the meanness of his extraction might be the better concealed. From partial insurrections, a spirit of general discontent spread throughout all the empire; and in Africa, the people obliged Marcus Antonius Gordianus, an old man of eighty, who was serving there as proconsul, to accept of the imperial dignity, and declared him and his son, who was forty-six years of age, emperors of Rome. This election was joyfully confirmed by the senate, who adjudged Maximin an enemy and a traitor to the state. However, the partisans and supporters of the Gordians being defeated, and the younger of them slain in battle before Carthage, the father strangled himself with his own girdle. Nothing now could exceed the consternation of the senate, who, deprived of the assistance of Gordian and his son, assembled with great solemnity in the temple of Jupiter, and, after mature deliberation, chose Marcus Claudius Pupienus Maximus and Decius Caelius Balbinus joint emperors, and empowered them to take measures for the defence of Rome against Maximin, who was marching thither from Sirmium. The grandson of the elder Gordian, Marcus Antonius Gordianus, was declared heir to the empire with the title of Cæsar. At length, Maximin, and his son, whom he had made his partner in the empire, were assassinated by the soldiers, who took this step to secure their own safety at Aquileia, in Northern Italy, in May, 238 A.D. Thus died Maximin, whose assiduity in a humble station, and whose cruelty in power, serve to evince that the virtues of some men are better fitted for obscurity.

Pupienus and Balbinus continued for about a month to

discharge the duties of their station without opposition ; but the Prætorian guards, who had long been notorious for mutiny and treason, resolving on a further change, the seditious soldiers, dragging them from the palace towards the camp, during the Capitoline games, dispatched them, and left their bodies in the streets.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Maximin... A.D. 235	perors, and the grand-
Revolution in Africa :	son of the elder Gor-
the Gordians called to	dian, Cæsar ...March, A.D. 238
the throne..February, ,, 238	Murder of Maximin by
Battle before Carthage,	his soldiers at Aquileia
the younger Gordian	May, ,, 238
falls on the field, and	Murder of Pupienus and
the elder Gordian,	Balbinus by a party
hangs himself, March, ,, 238	of the Prætorian
Pupienus and Balbinus	guards, at Rome
appointed joint em-	June, ,, 238

## 8. MARCUS ANTONIUS GORDIANUS PIUS.

The mutineers, after brutally murdering two innocent men, who were doing their best to put an end to the unsettled state of affairs which had been produced by the misrule of Maximin, accidentally met the Cæsar, or heir to the imperial throne, Marcus Antonius Gordianus, the grandson of the old man who had committed suicide at Carthage, and declared him emperor on the spot ; and the senate and people, who had long been reduced to the necessity of permitting their emperors to be nominated by the army, confirmed their choice. This prince was only twelve years old when he began to reign, but his virtues seemed to compensate for his want of experience. He endeavoured to unite the opposing members of the government, and reconcile the soldiers and citizens to each other. His learning was equal to his virtues ; and he had in his library sixty-two thousand books. In the second year of his reign Sabinianus was proclaimed emperor in Africa, but the insurrection in his favour was soon suppressed. He had such respect for Misitheus, his governor and instructor, that he married his daughter, Furia Sabina Tranquillina, when he was about fifteen, in the third year of his reign, and profited by his counsels in all the critical

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A.D.

circumstances of his reign. Previous to the emperor's marriage, Misitheus had been placed at the head of the Prætorian guards, and had been honoured by the senate with the title of guardian of the republic.

In 241 A.D. the news reached Rome that Sapor, king of Persia, had invaded Mesopotamia and Syria, and taken Nisibis, Carrhæ, and Antioch. On this Gordian undertook the command of an expedition against them, and marched towards Asia by way of Pannonia and Mæsia, where he defeated the Goths and Sarmatians who had invaded these provinces. In Thrace he checked the progress southwards of the Alani, another of the northern tribes, and then, entering Asia, he defeated and drove back the Persians, and recovered the territory that they had taken. In 243 A.D. Misitheus died, having been poisoned by Philip, his successor in office, as it is supposed. In this year Gordian defeated Sapor on the banks of the Chaboras, or the Khabour, and consented to the association of Philip with himself on the imperial throne. Philip repaid this act of confidence by causing Gordian to be murdered. The precise time and place of his death are unknown. He was about eighteen when he died.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Gordianus Pius .....	A.D. 238	Gordianus defeats the Goths, &c. ....	A.D. 242
Rebellion of Sabinianus in Africa .....	„ 239	Persians driven back ...	„ 242
Marriage of Gordianus to Furia, daughter of Misitheus .....	„ 240	Misitheus poisoned and succeeded by Philip as prefect of the Prætorian guards .....	„ 243
Persian invasion of Syria, &c. ....	„ 241	Death of Gordianus and accession of Philip ...	„ 244

## 9. PHILIP THE ARABIAN.

Marcus Julius Philippus, having thus dispatched his benefactor, was acknowledged emperor by the army and the senate, when about forty years of age. He was **244**  
born in Arabia, for which reason he has been called **A.D.**  
the Arabian, to distinguish him from others of the same name. He associated with himself his son, a boy six years old, as his partner in the empire; and his government was signalized by

acts of goodness and mildness. The most noticeable event of his reign, perhaps, was the celebration of the great secular games which were performed at intervals, with great pomp and magnificence, and with additional rejoicings at this time, because the city had just completed the thousandth year of its existence. These games were celebrated in April, 248. In the following year the soldiers stationed in Moesia and Pannonia broke into revolt. Decius, a Roman senator, was sent by Philip to suppress the insurrection, but the soldiers proclaimed Decius emperor, and, to save his life at the time, he was compelled to accept office. The troops then marched on to Rome with the newly-proclaimed emperor at their head. Philip, hastily gathering troops, met them at Verona, towards the close of the year 249 A.D., and fell on the field of battle. His son was put to death at Rome, and the authority of Decius acknowledged by the senate. It is said that Philip was a convert to Christianity, but whether this be true or not is uncertain.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Celebration of the completion of the 1000th year of Rome's existence .....	A.D. 248	Decius appointed emperor .....	A.D. 249
Revolt of the army. Death of Philip called "The Arabian" near Verona .....			249

#### EMPERORS FROM PERTINAX TO PHILIP THE ARABIAN.

Pertinax.....	A.D. 193	Heliogabalus .....	A.D. 218
Didius Julianus.....	" 193	Alexander Severus .....	" 222
Pescennius Niger .....	" 193	Maximin .....	" 235
Clodius Albinus .....	" 193	The Gordians .....	" 237
Septimius Severus .....	" 193	Balbinus and Pupienus .....	" 238
Caracalla and Geta .....	" 211	Gordianus Pius.....	" 238
Caracalla alone.....	" 212	Philip the Arabian .....	" 244
Macrinus .....	" 217		

## CHAPTER VII.

## THE DECLINE OF THE EMPIRE OF ROME.—ATTACKS OF THE BARBARIANS.

250 A.D. to 285 A.D.

## 1. DECIUS.

CAIUS MESSIUS QUINTUS TRAJANUS DECIUS—to give his full name—was a native of Illyricum. Few particulars have been preserved respecting his family. He was born about the close of the second century, and may have been fifty years of age, or a little more, when he was called to the imperial throne. His activity and wisdom, had his life been spared, might have stopped for awhile, in a great measure, the hastening decline of the Roman empire. The senate thought so highly of his merits, that they voted him not inferior to Trajan; and, indeed, in every instance, he seemed to consult their dignity in particular, and the welfare of the lower classes of the people. Among other concessions he allowed a censor to be elected, as was customary in the flourishing times of Rome, and Publius Licinius Valerianus, a Roman of such strict morals that his life was said to be a continual censorship, was nominated by the senate to that dignity.

No personal virtues, however, could prevent the approaching downfall of the state, which was enfeebled beyond the power of a remedy by internal dissensions, and by the unceasing attacks of barbarian tribes on the frontiers. The Christians, too, were acquiring increasing importance in the empire, and the metropolis had long been the see of a succession of Christian bishops, most of whom had earned the crown of martyrdom. To check the influence of the Christians, and the faith they professed, a furious persecution was commenced against them. This outburst of fury is considered the seventh of the great persecutions to which the Christians were subjected under the Roman emperors. Thousands of them were put to death at the time, and among them Fabian, who was then bishop of

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A.D.250  
A.D.

Rome. All the arts of pagan cruelty were indeed tried, but without effect, to lessen their constantly increasing numbers.

This impolitic and dreadful persecution was followed by an inroad of a people called Goths, who committed dreadful devastations in Thrace and Mœsia. The Goths were a German race, who in early times had occupied the countries bordering on the southern coasts of the Baltic Sea, and the districts on the lower course of the Vistula. This was the position they are considered to have occupied in Europe at the time of the Christian era when Augustus was on the throne of Rome. Two centuries later—impelled by want of room, or, more probably, by the march of events as ordered by the Almighty Disposer of earthly things, who had predestined them to be the means whereby the Roman empire should be overthrown—they had moved in a south-eastern direction, and had occupied the whole of the central plain of Europe bordering on the northern confines of Dacia and the Black Sea, taking possession of the districts formerly occupied by the Sarmatians, or ancient Scythians. Occupying Dacia in the reign of Philip the Arabian, they spread along the north bank of the Danube, and, under the name of Visigoths, or Western Goths, in this quarter, and Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths, in the east, on the great plains north of the Black Sea, began to prepare for their great southern movement, which washed over the civilised Roman world in after years like an irresistible human wave. The people, which had been developing into so mighty a nation for the last half-century on the north-eastern frontier of the empire, and had been gaining confidence from the results of previous collisions with their southern foes, were separated into various tribes, many of which subsequently became famous; but for the present it will be convenient to consider them as a great frontier race of barbarians which had absorbed all others previously settled in the localities that have been indicated, and which, now for the first time known in history under the collective name of Goths, was preparing for the series of assaults which were to prove the destruction of the Roman empire.

In 250 A.D. the Goths, who had previously whetted their appetite for the spoils of Roman colonies by predatory incursions into Mœsia, crossed the Danube in great force, and laid siege to Nicopolis, on the south bank of the river. Decius, in the following year, hastened to oppose them, and compelled

them to retire into Thrace, but, dexterously avoiding his pursuing forces, they returned to Nicopolis, and it fell into their hands. A great and decisive battle ensued soon after, in November, 251, in which the Goths remained masters of the field, the Emperor Decius and his elder son, Herennius Etruscus, falling in the fight. So decisive was the victory that the Roman troops in action perished almost to a man.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of the Emperor		The Goths invade Mœsia A.D. 250
Decius.....	A.D. 249	Total defeat of the Romans, and death of
Seventh great persecution of the Christians. ,,	250	Decius .....Nov., ,, 251

## 2. GALLUS TREBONIANUS.—ÆMILIANUS.

On the death of Decius, Gallus Trebonianus, one of his generals, was declared emperor by that part of the army which survived, and his title was acknowledged by the senate and the people. He agreed to pay a considerable annual tribute to the Goths for their forbearance, and was the first who bought a dishonourable peace from the enemies of his country. With him was associated Hostilianus, the younger son of Decius, but he took little, if any, part in affairs of state.

The state of the Roman provinces at this period was extremely deplorable. The Goths, and other barbarous people, not satisfied with the late bribes to continue in peace, rushed like a torrent upon the eastern parts of Europe; whilst, on the other side, the Persians and Scythians committed dreadful ravages in Mesopotamia and Syria. Regardless of every national calamity, the emperor passed his time in feasting and idleness at home, and the pagans were permitted to persecute the Christians without restraint. These calamities were succeeded by a dreadful pestilence, which carried off Hostilianus among other victims, and which was followed by a civil war between Gallus and his general Æmilianus, who, having gained a victory over the Goths, was proclaimed emperor by his army, and defeated and slew Gallus in the forty-seventh year of his age, after a disgraceful reign of two years and four months, in which the empire suffered inexpressible misery. The army of Gaul and Germany, however, chose as emperor Publius Læci-

nus Valerianus, who had been censor under Decius, and who had been sent by Gallus to bring these troops to his aid on the election of Æmilianus, and this unfortunate general was put to death by his own soldiers, who a short time previously had been unanimous in his favour.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Gallus Tre-		Death of Gallus and
bonianus.....	A.D. 251	Æmilianus, and elec-
Revolt of Æmilianus ...	„ 253	tion of Valerian ..... A.D. 253

#### 3. PUBLIUS LICINIUS VALERIANUS.

As soon as Valerian was placed on the throne he associated with himself in the government his son Gallienus, a young man who was as depraved and dissolute as his father was just and good. The German barbarians of Western Europe, who had now formed confederacies, styling themselves Franks and Alemanni, the precursors of the French and Germans of more modern times, now carried the tide of invasion across the Rhine, as the Goths had done over the Danube, and Gallienus was sent into Gaul to oppose them. His general, Postumus, gained some successes over them, but a body of Franks marched across France, entered and ravaged Spain, and finally crossed into Africa, with the spoil that they had gathered on their way. A great number of the Alemanni poured through the defiles of the Alps, and entered Northern Italy in 255 A.D., penetrating as far as Ravenna. Their progress southward was stopped by Lucius Domitius Aurelianus, one of the best of Valerian's generals, but they maintained the footing they had gained in the northern plains of the peninsula.

About 256 A.D. the news was once more brought to Rome that the Persians were carrying all before them in the East, under their king, Sapor I., and Valerian left Rome and marched to the scene of strife. Passing through Asia Minor, into which the Goths had recently extended their predatory incursions, he entered Mesopotamia. Defeated by Sapor, Valerian was taken prisoner, and held in a close and cruel captivity, the Persian king using the Roman emperor as a mounting block whenever he chose to ride abroad. Broken in spirit as well as fortune, Valerian died, and Sapor had him



skinned, and placed the stuffed integument in some Persian temple. By some it is asserted that Sapor was barbarous enough to skin his unhappy victim while he was yet alive.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Northern Italy by the Alemanni, and their defeat by Aurelian.....	A. D. 255	Departure of the Emperor Valerian for the East .....	A. D. 257
Persian invasion of Roman territory under Sapor .....	„ 256	Defeat of Valerian by the Persian king Sapor: his imprisonment and death .....	„ 260

## 4. GALLIENUS.

On the captivity of Valerian, his son Gallienus acted as emperor alone. In his reign the Germans and other barbarous nations attacked the empire on all sides. But, though the empire was afflicted throughout with pestilence and famine—though the Germans overran Rætia—though the Alemanni wasted Gaul—though the Goths, the Quadi, and Sarmatians poured forth from their forests, and carried desolation everywhere—Gallienus remained in the utmost tranquillity at Rome, inventing new pleasures, and passing his time in luxury and debauch. When informed of the loss of his provinces, or the calamities of the state, he answered only with a jest; and in a short time his power was little more than a mere mockery. It was fortunate, however, for Gallienus that there were others more efficient than himself to protect the threatened outposts of the empire. At the fertile oasis midway between the Euphrates and Damascus, where caravans were wont to halt, a noble city, called Palmyra, had sprung up, which had gathered wealth and increased in importance from century to century as a place of transit trade. It gradually became the metropolis of an Arab empire—or rather its ruler assumed, with the sanction of the Arab tribes, a kind of leadership and sovereignty over them, and in virtue of this supremacy was styled Prince of the Saracens. Odenathus, the husband of the famous Zenobia, was ruling at Palmyra at this time, and on the defeat of the Romans under Valerian he rendered essential service to Rome by harassing Sapor and the Persians

on their retreat. Odenathus was succeeded in 267 A.D. by his wife Zenobia, but the pretensions of Palmyra to the sovereignty of the East becoming insufferable to Rome, Zenobia was attacked and defeated by Aurelian in 273 A.D., and the short-lived Palmyrene empire brought to a close.

The story of the reign of Gallienus is a difficult one to tell, for so many Romans—there were thirty pretenders to the imperial crown in different parts of the empire at one time, it is said—deemed themselves worthy of the empire, and were successful in some cases in securing the government of the provinces in which they were stationed, that the empire resembled nothing so much as a house divided against itself. In the East, as we have seen, Odenathus was aspiring to a sort of sovereignty, and he seems at first to have been looked on as a vassal king subject to Rome, for Gallienus triumphed for his successes over the Persians. Egypt passed, to a certain extent, under the rule of Odenathus. In the West, Postumus grouped Gaul, Spain, and Britain into a separate empire, whose capital was at Treves. It did not last long, it is true; for Victorinus, the colleague of Postumus, as well as Postumus himself, were murdered by the soldiers, and Victoria then became empress, from whose hands the sceptre passed to Tetricus in 267 A.D. In Syria, Macrianus, the prefect of the Prætorian guards under Valerian, had been proclaimed emperor by the troops (261 A.D.); but when on his way to Rome he was met, defeated, and killed by Aureolus, who had been proclaimed in Illyricum. Aureolus seems to have maintained his position until 268 A.D., when Gallienus attacked him in Milan. He was languishing of a wound received during the siege, when Gallienus was killed by some of his officers. His death happened March 20, 268 A.D.

It is necessary to turn back and glance at the doings of the Goths during the last two reigns. They had been beaten back from Illyricum and Macedonia by Aurelian from 255 A.D. to 257 A.D. Foiled in forcing a way westward into Italy, they occupied the little kingdom of Bosporus, and in 258 A.D. passed into Asia Minor. Several cities on the southern shores of the Black Sea, including Trebizond, were overcome by them and plundered, and, making their way through the Propontis, now the Sea of Marmara, into the Ægean Sea, they plundered the whole coast of Greece, and all but took Athens (262 A.D.). Bribed by Gallienus, a Gothic tribe, the

Heruli, entered the service of Rome just as they were about to force a passage into Italy from Illyricum, and the remainder of the barbarians returned home, some through Mœsia, and others by the way by which they had come.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Gallienus becomes sole emperor at his father's death .....	A.D. 260	Macrianus defeated and killed by Aureolus, who had been proclaimed emperor in Illyricum .....	A.D. 262
Numerous pretenders to imperial power in various parts of the empire .....	„ 260	Asia Minor and Greece ravaged by the Goths. ..	„ 262
Odenathus establishes the short-lived Palmyrene empire .....	„ 261	Gallienus murdered by his officers while besieging Aureolus, in Milan .....	„ 268
Western empire formed of Spain, Gaul, and Britain, by Postumus. ..	„ 261	The power over the western empire of Postumus passes to Tetricus .....	„ 267
Macrianus proclaimed emperor by the troops in Syria .....	„ 261		

## 5. MARCUS AURELIUS CLAUDIUS.

On the death of Gallienus, the army nominated Marcus Aurelius Claudius emperor, and his title was joyfully confirmed by the senate and the people. He **268**  
 was a man of great valour and conduct, and had **A.D.**  
 performed the most excellent services against the Goths, who had long continued to make irruptions into the empire, as it has been shown. He had been placed by Gallienus in command of Illyricum, where his successes over the invading barbarians won him the name of Gothicus. He was equally remarkable for the strength of his body and the vigour of his mind, and was chaste and temperate, a rewarder of the good, and a severe punisher of those who transgressed the laws. His first care was to enforce the surrender of Aureolus, who was beheaded immediately after. He then marched immediately against the Alemanni, who had remained in Northern Italy, and compelled them to withdraw beyond the Alps. In 269 A.D. the news was brought to Rome that the Goths had again poured from their northern fortresses over the seaboard of Greece, Asia Minor, and the Greek Islands in the Mediterranean, and were laying siege to Thessalonica. Claudius, although he was scarcely able to gather an efficient army from

the number of men that were with Tetricus in the west, and Zenobia in the east, marched against them. On his approach they raised the siege of Thessalonica, and hastened to meet him, expecting an easy victory. In this they were mistaken; for Claudius completely defeated them at Naissus, in Dardania, and, by carrying on a desultory warfare throughout the winter, succeeded in annihilating them by the spring of the following year. Scarcely had he achieved this when he fell ill at Sirmium, and died in March 270 A.D., after naming Lucius Domitius Aurelianus as his successor. In some measure he arrested the decline of the empire, and seemed to restore a portion of the glory of Rome. His reign was active and successful. He is said to have united in himself the moderation of Augustus, the valour of Trajan, and the piety of Antoninus.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Marcus Aurelius Claudius ... A.D. 268	Goths defeated by the Emperor Claudius at Naissus .....	A.D. 269
Invasion of Asia Minor and Greece by the Goths .....	Death of Claudius at Sirmium .....	„ 270

## 6. LUCIUS DOMITIUS AURELIANUS.

The able general who had assumed the chief command on the death of Claudius, designated to it by the late emperor, and willingly recognised by the army, was the son of a peasant of Sirmium. He had enlisted in the army at an early age, and won his way upwards from grade to grade. He had seen plenty of arduous service against the Goths and other enemies of Rome, and had at last been adopted into a noble Roman family. His accession was not altogether without opposition, for Quintillus, the brother of Claudius, was proclaimed at Aquileia by the troops, and his nomination was accepted by the senate. The candidature of Quintillus, however, did not last long; for, aware of his inability to cope with his rival, he committed suicide a few days after his elevation to the purple.

Aurelian's first care was to bring about an immediate settlement of the conflict that had been raging so long with the Goths, and in order to effect this he resigned the province of Dacia to them, taking

hostages for their good conduct. The Roman settlers in Dacia were withdrawn to the south bank of the Danube, but many chose to remain and become incorporated by inter-marriage with the Goths. In the meantime the Alemanni had taken advantage of the Gothic war to re-enter Northern Italy; and Aurelian, as soon as he had settled matters in Dacia, marched against them, intending to attack them when they recrossed the Danube in their homeward march with the plunder they collected. Finding that they could not avoid a conflict with Aurelian if they crossed the Danube, they turned back and recommenced their ravages in Northern Italy. On this Aurelian hastened after them in pursuit, but received a severe and almost fatal check near Placentia; but, after receiving reinforcements by waiting for the bulk of his army, that was coming up behind, he attacked and defeated them, first at Fanum, now Fano, in Umbria, and afterwards before Pavia, winning two such decisive victories, that the invading army of the Alemanni was utterly cut to pieces and destroyed.

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The growth of Rome had been so great, that vast suburbs now lay on all sides around the ancient city as enclosed with walls by Servius Tullius; and for its better security against any sudden attack from the northern foes of the empire, Aurelian enclosed the whole with a new wall, of which a great part remains to this day. The fortification of the capital completed, he then turned his attention to reducing the portions of the empire which had acquired independence in the reign of Gallienus, and first he prepared an expedition against Palmyra, which had become the head of a powerful kingdom, comprising Syria and Egypt, under the able government of its queen, Zenobia, the widow of Odenathus, who had been killed in a private quarrel in 267 A.D., and her prime minister, the Greek philosopher and statesman, Longinus. For some years the Roman emperors had been content to allow things to go on as they were in Palmyra, because its rulers professed dependence on Rome; but, by the advice of Longinus, Zenobia had openly declared herself independent of Aurelian, and this the haughty spirit of an emperor of Rome could not suffer. War was declared, and Aurelian entered Syria. Zenobia hastened to meet him, and after suffering defeat at Antioch and Emesa retreated to her capital, which, after en-

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A.D.

272  
A.D.

during a long siege—in which the Romans were assisted by their old enemy, the Persians, under their new king, Varanes I.—surrendered. Zenobia escaped, but was pursued and captured. Longinus and many of the Palmyrene nobles were put to death. A Roman garrison was left in the city, and Aurelian commenced his homeward march ; but he had scarcely crossed the Bosphorus and re-entered Europe when the news came that the troops left in charge of the city had been cut to pieces in a revolt of the inhabitants. Returning in haste, Aurelian took a terrible revenge for the rising by putting every one in Palmyra, on whom he could lay hands, to death, and levelling the city to the ground. The conquest of Zenobia and destruction of Palmyra was effected in 273 A.D.

The settlement of affairs in the East being thus concluded

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to Aurelian's satisfaction, the indefatigable emperor immediately entered Gaul to put an end to the pretensions of Tetricus. It is thought by some that Tetricus, weary of the cares of government, and afraid of his own troops, had besought Aurelian to reassert his authority over the revolted provinces ; but, however this may have been, a fierce and sanguinary battle took place near the modern town of Chalons-sur-Marne, in which the Gauls and Romans under Tetricus were completely defeated, and Tetricus himself taken prisoner. The triumph which Aurelian held for these victories, and the pacification of the empire, was one of the most magnificent that Rome had ever beheld.

After restoring peace to the empire, he endeavoured also to bring back virtue by the strictest justice. He was very rigid in punishing the crimes of the soldiers, and took care that the peasantry should not be plundered, upon any pretence, of the smallest article of their property. In executing justice he frequently degenerated into cruelty ; but the vices of the times, in some measure, seemed to require it. The Romans, contrasting the license under previous emperors with the strict morality which Aurelian strove to inculcate, showed opposition to his reforms, and a conspiracy was formed against him, which Aurelian put down with more than his accustomed severity. In the punishment which he inflicted on the guilty, or those so reputed, the Christians were sharers. Against these he drew up several letters and edicts, preparatory to a very severe persecution ; but if we may believe the historians

of the times he was deterred from signing them by a thunder-bolt, which fell so near his person that his escape was considered as miraculous. At last, wearied of his strictness—which, by the provocation of his opponents, had degenerated into cruelty—the Romans, at the beginning of 275 A.D., gladly saw him leave the capital to undertake an expedition against the Persians, who were again beginning to be troublesome. He had just entered Asia Minor when he was murdered by some of his officers. He died March, 275 A.D., in the sixtieth, or, as some say, in the sixty-fifth, year of his age.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Aurelian ... A.D. 270	Expedition against Palmyra ..... A.D. 272
Peace with the Goths, who are allowed to settle in Dacia ..... „ 270	Defeat of Zenobia and destruction of Palmyra ..... „ 273
Defeat of Alemanni in Northern Italy ..... „ 271	Defeat of Tetricus in Gaul ..... „ 274
New wall built round Rome ..... „ 272	Murder of Aurelian ..... „ 275

## 7. MARCUS CLAUDIUS TACITUS.

No steps were taken, either by the senate or the army, to appoint a successor to Aurelian as soon as his death was announced. Each body, in fact, seems to have been anxious to throw the onus of choice on the other. It was not, indeed, until six months after Aurelian's death that the senate gave way, and made choice of Marcus Claudius Tacitus, a man of great merit, and no way ambitious of the honours that were offered to him. At the time of his election he was seventy-five years of age, and was filling the office of princeps, or chief of the Roman senate. He was extremely temperate in every part of his conduct. He was fond of learning, and the memory of those who had deserved well of their country; and, in particular, he greatly honoured the works of his namesake, Tacitus, the historian, which he caused to be placed in every public library throughout the empire. A short time after his elevation to the throne, he found himself called upon to proceed to Asia Minor, to clear the peninsula of the Alani, a tribe of Scythians, who had been summoned to the assistance of Aurelian in the expedition which he was

undertaking against the Persians when he met with his death. Tacitus proceeded against the Alani with vigour, and had nearly succeeded in restoring peace to Asia Minor, when he died at Tarsus, April 12, 276 A.D.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Marcus Claudius Tacitus.....Sept., A.D. 275	Death of the Emperor Tacitus at Tarsus..... A.D. 276
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#### 8. MARCUS AURELIUS PROBUS.

On the death of Tacitus, his brother, Marcus Annianus Florianus, prevailed on the army in Asia Minor to proclaim him as emperor, but the choice of the troops in Syria fell on Marcus Aurelius Probus, a man in the prime of life, for he was at that time but forty-four years of age. Born at Sirmium, in Pannonia, Probus, like Aurelian, had enlisted early in life, and had seen a great deal of active service under him and other emperors. The command of the East had been assigned to him by Tacitus, and he had scarcely entered on the duties of his new government when the death of his master raised him to the throne. He delayed not a moment in returning home. Florianus was murdered by the troops at his approach, and the senate gladly confirmed his election.

As brave and energetic in every respect as Aurelian, but far more merciful, prudent, and politic, his reign was a prosperous and happy time for Rome. The same work, it is true, had to be carried out—the work of protecting the frontier provinces against the northern tribes; but Probus addressed

276 himself to the task with vigour, and was eminently  
A.D. successful. The Franks were driven northwards  
from Gaul, and compelled to retreat beyond the

Lower Rhine. The Alemanni were also forced back into the German forests, and the old boundary line of the “Tithed Lands” between the upper courses of the Rhine and the Danube was restored. Treaties, indeed, were made with the tribes of the north and Germany, in virtue of which they engaged to furnish supplies for the armies on the frontier and recruits, which were incorporated in small bodies among the different Roman legions.

Probus had sent Saturninus to the East to take measures for the protection of Roman interests in those parts, and this



general had restored peace to Egypt, which had been troubled by an invasion of the Ethiopians. His friends recommended him to declare the independence of the eastern provinces, and to assume the government, and, unwisely yielding to their persuasions, he did so. His ambition, however, only drew on him swift destruction; for 280  
A.D. Probus marched against him immediately, and Saturninus fell on the field of battle. His example was followed by Bonosus and Proculus in Gaul, who set up the standard of revolt from Rome while Probus was in the East, to meet with defeat and death on his return. Though a soldier, he did not like fighting for fighting's sake, as many of his profession did and do, and he became an object of dislike to the troops from having said that he hoped a time of universal peace would come, when men would find something better to do than cutting each other's throats. He had a taste for agricultural pursuits, and set his troops about draining the land about Sirmium. This led to his death; for one 282  
A.D. day, while he was busily engaged in superintending the works, they rose in sudden insurrection against him. He retreated in haste to a watch-tower that he had erected to overlook the country round and the camp; but the mutinous soldiery followed him, forced their way in, and put him to death. Sorrow for the deed followed speedily, as soon as the momentary resentment had time to cool down, and the soldiers erected over his remains a monument, on which the following inscription bore witness to his worth and merits: "Here lies Probus the emperor, an honest man indeed, a conqueror of the barbarians, and an enemy to tyrants."

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Probus as emperor confirmed by the senate ... August, A.D. 276	at Alexandria, and its suppression ..... A.D. 280
Conquest of the Franks, Alemanni, and other tribes that had invaded Gaul ..... ,, 277	Suppression of the insurrection of Bonosus and Proculus in Gaul ..... ,, 280
Rebellion of Saturninus	Murder of Probus by mutinous troops at Sirmium..... ,, 282

## 9. CARUS, CARINUS, AND NUMERIAN.

The dignity of emperor was bestowed by the soldiers, after  
6—2

the death of Probus, on Marcus Aurelius Carus, the prefect of the Prætorian guards, and he accepted office at once, without caring whether the senate chose to recognise him or not. He was a native of Narbo, in Gallia Narbonensis, and was about sixty years of age at the time of his accession to power. After associating his sons, Carinus and Numerian, with himself in the empire as Cæsars, as those subordinate in rank to the emperor only were now commonly called, in token of being his successors in the government, he left the former to carry on the government at home, and marched with the latter into Illyricum to repel an invasion of the Sarmatians. Thence he marched through Thrace and Asia Minor to prosecute a war against the Persians, who in vain endeavoured to turn him from his purpose. He overran Mesopotamia and took Seleucia and Ctesiphon, when

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he died during an awful storm of thunder and lightning. The general's tent was struck by lightning, or purposely set on fire, and the troops, no longer inclined to continue the war with Persia, marched homeward, under the command of Numerian. Through illness, Numerian was obliged to be carried along with the army, shut up in a close litter. After some time, the peculiarity of his situation excited the ambition of his father-in-law, Arrius Aper, the prefect of the Prætorian guards, who hired a mercenary villain to murder Numerian in his litter; and, the better to conceal the fact, he reported that he was still alive, but unable to show himself to the troops. In this manner the dead body was carried about for some days, Aper continuing to attend it with the utmost appearance of respect, and seeming to receive orders as usual. However, the offensiveness of the smell at length discovering the treachery, Diocletian, one of the most noted commanders of his time, was chosen emperor by the army, and slew Aper with his own hand, thereby fulfilling a prophecy that he should be emperor after he had slain a boar.

At home, Carinus had broken into excesses during the absence of his father and brother, which rendered him an object of dislike to the senate and the people. Hearing of the assumption of the purple by Diocletian, he hastened to dispute his passage homewards through Mœsia. The contending forces met on the plains of Margus, and Diocletian was defeated. The conqueror, however, was assassinated im-

mediately after the battle, and the claim of Diocletian was promptly recognised by the senate.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Carus as emperor .....	A.D. 282	Murder of Numerian by Aper .....	A.D. 284
His death by lightning in Persia while engaged in conquering that country .....	„ 283	Proclamation of Diocletian .....	Sept., „ 284
Numerian proclaimed in the East.....	„ 283	Diocletian defeated by Carinus at Margas—Assassination of the Emperor Carinus .....	„ 285

## EMPERORS FROM DECIUS TO NUMERIAN.

Decius .....	A.D. 249	Aurelian.....	A.D. 270
Gallus Hostilius .....	„ 251	Tacitus .....	„ 275
Æmilianus.....	„ 253	Florianus .....	„ 276
Valerianus and Gallienus .....	„ 253	Probus... ..	„ 276
Gallienus alone.....	„ 260	Carus alone .....	„ 282
Claudius.....	„ 268	Carus, Carinus, and Numerianus .....	„ 283
Quintillus .....	„ 270		

## CHAPTER VIII.

## FROM DIOCLETIAN TO CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.

285 A.D. to 323 A.D.

## 1. DIOCLETIAN AND HIS COADJUTORS.

CAIUS VALERIUS DIOCLETIANUS was the son of a scrivener, or as others say, of a slave, and was born at Dioclea, in Dalmatia, whence he obtained his name. 284

When elected to the empire, he was about forty years of age, and owed his exaltation entirely to his merit; and he had passed through all the gradations of office with sagacity, courage, and success. The beginning of his reign did not in the least deceive the expectations which his subjects had formed in his favour. He pardoned all his enemies, and injured neither their fortunes nor their honours.

Instead of returning to Rome, the head and metropolis of the empire, as his first intention appears to have been, Diocle-

tian took up his residence at Nicomedia, a town of Bithynia, on an eastern inlet of the Propontis, or Sea of Marmora. He did this partly to free himself from the domination of the senate, and partly to be nearer the scene of action should fresh troubles necessitate his presence in the eastern provinces. To prevent any evil results from his absence from Rome, he appointed Marcus Aurelius Maximianus, an Illyrian soldier, of low origin like himself, his successor and representative in the West in 285 A.D., and in the following year associated him with himself as emperor of the Western provinces, while he himself retained supreme authority in the East. Thus was the plan initiated for the division of the empire, which was substantially carried out at a later period.

The first task that Maximianus encountered in the West was the suppression of a rebellion of the peasants of Gaul (286 A.D.); and no sooner was this put down than his presence was required in Britain, where the sovereign power was

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A.D. openly assumed by Carausius (287 A.D.). Possessed of a powerful fleet and great resources, the Emperors

Diocletian and Maximianus found it more to their profit to make peace with him than to fight against him, and they acknowledged him as supreme in Britain.

Diocletian now proceeded to extend his system of the separation of the empire by dividing it into four governments, under as many princes. Maximianus continued to share with him the title of Augustus, and Galerius and Constantius Chlorus were created Cæsars. Each had his separate department or province, and all were nominally supreme, but in reality under the superior talents and authority of Diocletian. Constantius was adopted by Maximianus, and married his stepdaughter Theodora, to do which he divorced his first wife Helena, afterwards famous in history for the favour she showed to the Christians, and her canonization as a saint. Galerius was adopted by Diocletian, and received in marriage his daughter Valeria. This arrangement was effected in 292 A.D. It may be said here that Constantius belonged to a noble family of Upper Mœsia, and was the son of Eutropius, who had married Claudia, the niece of the Emperor Claudius. Galerius, on the other hand, was as unlike him in disposition as he was his inferior in point of birth, being a rough and ferocious soldier, the son of a poor and illiterate shepherd of Dacia. The separation of the empire was thus effected. Dio-

cletian, who was considered as possessed of the chief authority, superintended the affairs of Asia Minor, Syria, Egypt, and Thrace, and fixed his residence at Nicomedia. Maximianus at Milan, which he made the capital of his division, ruled over Italy, Sicily, and Africa. Galerius governed Illyricum, the Danubian provinces, and Greece, and fixed on Limnium as the seat of his government. Constantius assumed the management of Spain, Gaul, and Britain, and stationed himself at Treves. Rome, from being the head and source of government of the whole empire, sank into the position of a second-rate city. The authority of the senate fell to zero, and paled before the new system of separate personal government that was thus inaugurated in different parts of the empire. The army was kept under control, the Prætorian guards were partly disbanded, and in their place each emperor and each Cæsar had his body-guard.

The arrangement thus effected by Diocletian was not without its advantages. Prompt and ready attention could be paid by each administrator to the affairs of the provinces immediately under his eye, and it was by no means necessary as heretofore for the emperor, as head and chief of the state, to run hither and thither to any part of the frontier where he might be called whenever danger threatened from without, or rebellion within threw all things into disorder. The first thing that was done under the new régime was to compel the subjection of Britain once more to imperial authority, and in 292 A.D. Constantius prepared for an attack on Carausius. The task of defending the island against the imperial troops did not fall on him, however, but on Allectus, by whom Carausius was murdered in 293 A.D. Three years longer did Constantius await his opportunity, and at last managed to evade the watchful care of his adversary, whose fleet protected the coast in a most admirable manner, and effected a landing on the coast of Kent. A battle ensued, in which Allectus was killed, and the Britons immediately afterwards returned to their allegiance. Constantius next found employment in repelling an invasion of the Alemanni, who crossed the Rhine and ravaged Gaul. During this time Galerius had been actively engaged in repelling the invasions of the Goths and Sarmatians beyond the Danube, and in carrying war into their own country to make reprisals for their attacks.

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The Augusti, as the emperors were called, were as busy in carrying on and directing warfare as the Cæsars. A rebellion in Mauritania was put down by Maximianus, while another in Egypt, where Achilleus had assumed the sovereignty of the country, was suppressed by Diocletian. It was just after this that the affairs of Rome with Persia once more assumed prominence. It will be remembered

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that, in the time of the unfortunate Emperor Valerian, Armenia had been conquered by Sapor; but, when this took place, the young Armenian prince Tiridates was saved, and brought to Rome to be educated. A revolt of the Armenians in 286 A.D. had paved the way for his return, and the contest for supremacy between Tiridates and the Persian kings continued for some years. At last Tiridates got the upper hand, aided by a civil war in Persia, and the services of a Chinese prince, Mamgo, who had taken refuge in Armenia, after being refused an asylum in Persia. When the civil strife in Persia had been brought to a termination, the Persians once more took up arms against Tiridates, who fled to Diocletian to seek assistance. To afford this Diocletian immediately took up his residence at Antioch, and sent Galerius into Mesopotamia to prosecute the war.

The first efforts of the Romans were unsuccessful, but in the second campaign Galerius carried everything before him, and compelled the Persians to sue for peace. Armenia, Mesopotamia, and all the country beyond the Tigris as far as the Chaboras or Khabour, were ceded to Rome (298 A.D.). A few years after this, when the whole of the empire was at peace, Diocletian and Maximianus visited Rome (302 A.D.) to hold a triumph for the numerous victories that had been obtained during the reign by the Augusti and the Cæsars. This was the last of the old triumphs that was ever witnessed in Rome.

During the reign of Diocletian Christianity had made rapid progress, and it was now openly professed by the majority of persons in Rome and by persons of the highest rank. There was, indeed, no especial objection to Christianity on the part of the ruling powers of Rome, except in the fact that the Christians preferred to observe their duty to God rather than obedience to the emperors when the two things clashed in any way; and, among other things, many hesitated to take the military oath of obedience to the emperors, because it involved

certain observances of a heathen character. So offended was Galerius by the course adopted in many cases by the Christians that he took no steps to conciliate them, and aid them to escape from the dilemma in which they were placed by a relaxation of military discipline and law in their favour; but, on the contrary, he excited Diocletian to take measures at Nicomedia to forbid the exercise of the Christian religion throughout the empire, and to set on foot a bitter persecution. This exercise of despotic power on the part of Diocletian was the tenth and last great persecution of the Christians set on foot by the Roman emperors.

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It is said to have exceeded all the preceding ones in severity, and was pursued with such zeal that in an ancient inscription it is recorded that "the government had effaced the name and superstition of the Christians, and had restored and propagated the worship of the gods." However, the attempts of their persecutors were only the efforts of an expiring party, for Christianity was soon after established by law, and triumphed over the malice of its enemies.\*

Towards the close of the year 303 A.D. Diocletian visited Rome once more, in order to celebrate the commencement of the twentieth year of his reign. The year following he was attacked by illness in passing through Illyricum to Nicomedia. Disturbed at the thought of the internecine strife that might ensue if the succession of the empire to the Cæsars was not accomplished at his death, he resolved to abdicate, and succeeded in persuading Maximianus to relinquish the imperial authority at the same time. The two emperors accordingly laid down their power simultaneously on May 1, 305 A.D., Diocletian going through the ceremony at Nicomedia, and Maximianus at Milan. Maximianus's desire for abdication was by no means sincere; it was forced on him by Diocletian, and, at a later period, as we shall see, he sought to reassume the power which he had laid down. Diocletian went into retirement at Salona, whose site was near the modern Spalatro,

\* It may be useful to mention here the Ten Persecutions of the Christians by the Roman emperors, as mentioned by ecclesiastical writers:—(1) Under Nero, beginning 64 A.D.; (2) under Domitian, beginning 95 A.D.; (3) under Trajan, in 106 A.D.; (4) under Marcus Aurelius, beginning 166 A.D.; (5) under Severus, in 202 A.D.; (6) under Maximin, in 235 A.D.; (7) under Decius, in 250 A.D.; (8) under Valerian, in 258 A.D.; (9) under Aurelian, in 275 A.D.; and (10) under Diocletian and Maximianus, in 303 A.D.

in Dalmatia, where he amused himself in the construction of a magnificent palace, and in simple and peaceful pursuits. Here he lived for nine years, and expired at last in 313 A.D., not without a suspicion on the part of some writers of having hastened his end by self-destruction.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Proclamation of Diocletian as emperor at Chalcedon, September A.D. 284	recovery of Britain by Constantius ..... A.D. 296
Adoption of Caius Valerius Maximianus as Caesar ..... „ 285	Revolution in Egypt under Achilleus repressed by Diocletian „ 296
Elevation of Maximianus to the rank of emperor in the West ..... „ 286	Diocletian and Galerius commence a war against Persia ..... „ 297
Appointment of Constantius and Galerius as Cæsars, or successors in the empire..... „ 292	Annexation of Mesopotamia and western provinces of Persia to Rome ..... „ 298
Assumption of sovereign power in Britain by Carausius ..... „ 287	Last triumph held at Rome by Diocletian and Maximianus ..... „ 302
Acknowledgment of independence of Carausius by Diocletian and Maximianus ..... „ 290	Persecution of the Christians instigated by Galerius ..... „ 303
Murder of Carausius by Allectus ..... „ 293	Diocletian's second and last visit to Rome ... „ 303
Defeat of Allectus, and	Abdication of the Emperors Diocletian and Maximianus ..... May „ 305

#### 2. CONSTANTIUS CHLORUS AND GALERIUS MAXIMIANUS.

On the abdication of Diocletian and Maximianus, Constantius Chlorus succeeded to the dignities and honours of the latter in the West, and Galerius Maximianus to those of the former in the East; but of these Constantius took the precedence, as being an older and abler man, to say nothing of being better fitted for the position by birth. Galerius, however, assumed the right, which was conceded to him, of nominating the Cæsars, or successors of the emperors, in both parts of the empire, and Flavius Valerius Severus was named as the successor of Constantius, with authority over Italy and Egypt, Constantius retaining Spain, Gaul, and Britain; while Daza, an Illyrian peasant, the nephew of Galerius, was placed in command over Egypt and Syria. The interference of Gale-



rius in thus settling the succession was induced chiefly by the ill-health of Constantius, and Galerius at his death expected to have the whole Roman empire under his control, and to settle the government of its provinces as he pleased. There was, however, an obstacle to the arrangement, which shortly showed itself in the person of Flavius Constantinus, the son of Constantius and his divorced wife Helena, who looked upon succession to his father's honours as his birthright, and not only asserted and maintained his right by the sword, but ultimately, as the sequel will show, succeeded in establishing himself as sole emperor.

Constantine, to use the name by which he is familiarly known in history, is supposed to have been born at Naissus, now Nissa, in Upper Mœsia, in 272 A.D., according to some writers, and 274 A.D., according to others. He had served under Galerius in Persia, and had won high military rank. There is no doubt that Galerius feared his talents and energy, and hated him. He would have kept him from the side of his father, and did so for a long time after his accession as emperor; but the son, in compliance with his father's wishes, quitted Nicomedia, despite the attempts of Galerius to detain him, and escaping the perils of the journey and the pursuit which was ordered by Galerius as soon as he heard of his departure, reached Boulogne just as Constantius was preparing to cross the channel to Britain to head an expedition against the Caledonians. The emperor, who had been dying slowly for some time, summoned his officers round him and declared his son to be his successor in the government, and shortly after, on July 24, 306 A.D., yielded up his life at Eboracum, or York, which he had reached with difficulty. Constantine was immediately proclaimed with enthusiasm by his father's soldiers, and acknowledged by Galerius, to whom no other course was open, as *Cæsar* (not Augustus or emperor) of the western provinces. As, however, in accordance with the system devised by Diocletian, it was necessary that there should be an emperor over the western provinces, Galerius raised Severus, who had been designated as *Cæsar* under Constantine, to this dignity.

The reign of Constantius had come to a close after a brief duration of little more than a twelvemonth, and a long and fierce struggle for the mastery was at hand. Constantine was supreme over Spain, Gaul, and Britain, and regarded by

the people and soldiers as emperor, actually and by right, though acknowledged as *Cæsar* only by Galerius. Severus was declared emperor of the western provinces by Galerius, but had no more positive power than he possessed when he was simply the *Cæsar* of Constantine, in command over Italy and Africa. Galerius ruled over the east, with his nephew Maximinus as his *Cæsar* over Syria and Egypt. Such was the situation in 305 A.D.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Constantine in the west, and Galerius in the east .....	A.D. 305	Constantine, son of Constantine, proclaimed emperor of the west in Britain .....	A.D. 305
Death of Constantine at Eboracum, or York, July 24 ..	306	Severus declared emperor of the west by Galerius .....	306

### 3. THE STRUGGLE FOR POWER—CONSTANTINE, GALERIUS, SEVERUS, MAXIMIAN, MAXENTIUS, AND LUCIUS.

Secure in the possession of the dominions that his dead father had handed down to him, Constantine resolved not to intermeddle in the general affairs of the empire until occasion should render interference positively necessary, and he spent the early years of his reign in expeditions against the Franks,

**306** Alemanni, and other German tribes, and securing his north-eastern frontier. Elsewhere, however,

**A.D.** discontent with the dispositions of Galerius was manifesting itself in revolt and bloodshed. At Rome, the senate and people, during the absence of Severus, rose against his party, and the remnants of the Prætorian guards, in company with the new guards that had been enrolled under Maximian, combined and placed Maxentius, the son of Maximian, on the throne. All who offered any opposition were ruthlessly put to the sword. Thus was another ruler added to the four already in power.

New complications, however, were at hand. Roused by the success of his son, Maximian, who had unwillingly retired from the throne at the bidding of Diocletian, once more appeared on the scene of strife, and reclaimed the authority that he had laid down in 305 A.D. Many of the soldiers of Severus, who was now advancing to assert his authority in Rome,

deserted him and went to the support of their old master, and Severus himself, abandoning the attempt to recover the capital, threw himself into Ravenna. Here he opened negotiations with Maximian and Maxentius, and being led by the craft of the former to capitulate, he surrendered and was forced to commit suicide early in 307 A.D.

Maximian now resumed the exercise of all the imperial powers that he had abandoned. He recognised Constantine as emperor of the provinces that had fallen to his share, and gave him his daughter Fausta in marriage; but he derived little benefit in the form of assistance in any shape from his wary and politic son-in-law. Galerius marched into Italy to recover his lost supremacy in the west, but the hostility of the people, and the disaffection of his soldiers, caused him to retreat. Before commencing his expedition he had given the command of Illyricum, the Danubian provinces, and Greece, now generally known collectively as Illyricum, to Licinius, who, like himself, was a peasant who had risen to eminence by military service, with the title of Augustus or emperor. This title had also been granted to Maximin in Syria, hitherto the Cæsar of Galerius, and in the hope of keeping Constantine neutral, at least, he acknowledged him also as emperor of the provinces over which he then ruled. This gives us six emperors at this period. Maximian, with his son, Maxentius, and his son-in-law, Constantine, in the west, and Galerius and his supporters, Maximin and Licinius, in the east. 307  
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The apparent, but by no means real, balance of power that was thus produced was soon disturbed by disagreement between Maximian and his son, Maxentius, who would not suffer any interference on his father's part. The soldiers sided with Maxentius, and Maximian went to Constantine in Gaul. Although he was kindly received, he had not been there long before he took advantage of the absence of Constantine in an expedition against the Franks, to endeavour to seduce the troops from their allegiance. Informed of what was taking place, Constantine immediately returned. Maximian took refuge in Marseilles, but was given up by the inhabitants to his son-in-law and put to death. This happened in the early part of 310 A.D.

No change in the general position of affairs took place until the death of Galerius, who expired of a loathsome disease in

May, 311 A.D. The number of emperors was now reduced to four, Licinius assuming power over Illyricum and Thrace, while Maximin retained Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt. The excesses of Maxentius had driven

the people of Italy and Africa to seek redress against their oppressor at the hands of Constantine, and this prince, nothing loth, eagerly took advantage of the request of the senate to put his troops in motion against his brother-in-law. Maxentius, hearing that Constantine had crossed the Alps, sent troops northwards to meet him, and a battle ensued near Turin, in which the latter was victorious. Maxentius then roused himself to meet the conqueror, and a second conflict took place a few miles from Rome, in which Maxentius was worsted and put to flight. In attempting to make his way into Rome amid a crowd of beaten soldiers on the same errand as himself, he fell into the Tiber and was drowned. This happened October 28, 312. The Roman senate, long deprived

of even a semblance of power, welcomed Constantine with unfeigned pleasure, and declared him the first of the three emperors who now held sway in the empire. The only remarkable act of Constantine immediately after his entrance into Rome was the disbandment of the remnants of the Prætorian guards.

We now find Constantine holding authority over Spain, Gaul, Britain, Italy, and Africa, and the western islands of the Mediterranean, Corsica, Sardinia, and Sicily; Licinius in power over Illyricum and Thrace, or the whole of eastern Europe, between the Adriatic and the Black Sea, and south of the Danube; and Maximin supreme over Asia Minor, Syria, and Egypt. It is not to be wondered at that two of

these were drawn into a tolerably close alliance against the third, and that the two who thus entered into alliance were the European emperors.

Early in the year 313, Constantine and Licinius met at Milan, when the latter married Constantia, the sister of the former. Maximin, however, thinking it better to take action against the allies before they could mature their plans against him, invaded Thrace, and Licinius had to march against him alone, a Frankish invasion having necessitated the presence of Constantine in person on the Rhine frontier. Maximin was defeated before Heraclea, and compelled to retreat into Asia Minor; and in the following summer he died at Tarsus.

Licinius immediately assumed the government of the east, but marked the extension of his power by numerous cruel acts, among which may be mentioned the murder of Prisca and Valeria, the wife and daughter respectively of Diocletian, who also died in this year. Thus another stage is reached in the progress of events towards the re-union of the empire under one emperor, two claimants only of supreme power being now in existence.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Maxentius and Maximian proclaimed by the senate at Rome, Oct., A.D. 306	excite a revolt in Gaul against Constantine, and is put to death by his orders.....Feb., A.D. 310
Maximian quits his retirement and re-assumes the purple.....,, 306	Death of Galerius, May, ,, 311
Surrender and subsequent suicide of Severus.....Feb., ,, 307	The senate implore the aid of Constantine against Maxentius ... ,, 312
Marriage of Constantine and Fausta, the daughter of Maximian ,, 307	Defeat of Maxentius at Saxa Rubra, near Rome, and subsequent death .. .. .Oct., ,, 312
Licinius proclaimed emperor in the Illyrian provinces by Galerian Nov., ,, 307	Defeat of Maximian by Licinius, before Heraclea, in Thrace, April, ,, 313
Quarrel between Maximian and his son Maxentius .. .. . ,, 309	Death of Maximian at Tarsus .. .. .August, ,, 313
Maximian endeavours to	Death of the ex-emperor Diocletian .. .. . ,, 313

## 4. TOLERATION OF CHRISTIANITY.—CONSTANTINE—LICINIUS.

The establishment of the authority of Constantine in the western part of the empire was the commencement of a better system of government than had been pursued for many years. Christianity, which had been increasing steadily, in spite of the many checks it received by the persecutions of its followers at frequent intervals, was now recognised, and by the edict of Milan, Constantine, whose mother, Helena, was a Christian, and who had recently become a believer in Christianity himself, secured the free exercise of their religion to all who preferred the tenets of our Saviour to the abominations of paganism. Every man, woman, and child was free to follow the dictates

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of conscience throughout the dominion of Constantine. A disposition to toleration had been evinced by most of the men who had lately borne the title of emperor, but it was reserved for Constantine to lend effect by example as well as precept to the efforts made in behalf of a body which had so long languished, but yet flourished in the cold shade of persecution.

The story of the event which is said to have led to Constantine's conversion is well worth relating. Up to the year 313 A.D. he had been, it may be supposed, neither Christian nor heathen; while indisposed to join the ranks of those among whom his mother, Helena, was numbered, still he was averse through respect and love for his mother to take an active part in the persecution of those who held a common faith with herself. His father, Constantius, too, was tolerant, and no lover of harming man or woman for following the dictates of their conscience. Probably Constantine, like Gallio, "cared for none of those things," until an event happened which roused him from his carelessness. Whether the occurrence actually happened or not it is not possible to say. Perhaps it was due to the imagination only of Constantine, who at first partially, and then wholly impressed that he had really seen what he related, used it as his excuse for supporting Christianity against paganism. It has been urged against Constantine that he became Chief Pontiff, and participated in various heathen rites and ceremonies subsequently to his conversion, and that he was not baptised until he lay dying; but if it was his policy to protect and encourage Christianity—nay, more, his mission to do so, it was as necessary for him in seeking to establish peace and toleration throughout his realm to abstain from offending the heathen, the blind followers of a comfortless faith that their fathers had professed for upwards of a thousand years before them; and we must also remember that the converted Naaman was permitted to bow in the house of Rimmon, when he was obliged to accompany the king of Syria, his master, thither, without the imputation of being forgetful of his new faith, or neglectful of the true God whom he had been led to worship and acknowledge.

It is time, however, to narrate the story to which allusion has been made. When marching against Maxentius in the preceding year, Constantine had been astonished to see in the

deep blue field of the Italian sky a cross of surpassing brilliancy standing above the glowing sun, while on either side of it appeared in letters of dazzling light the Greek words, *ἰν νίκῃ νικᾷ* (en touto nika), "In this conquer." It is further said that the strange sight was seen by the army on the march as well as Constantine, but this lacks confirmation. While Constantine was yet brooding over the vision, he dreamt that he saw our Saviour holding in His hand a cross of the same form as that which he had seen in the sky, and ordering him to have this ensign of the Christian faith embroidered on a banner, which should ever after precede his troops to victory. Constantine, on awakening from sleep, had the banner made. The name Labarum was given to it, and a special body of men was enrolled for its defence.

It was long before the good understanding that had existed between Constantine and Licinius was broken. Licinius was the aggressor, and Constantine heard of his intent to invade Italy when he was presiding over a council of Christian bishops at Arles. Gathering some troops, he hastened to meet his brother-in-law and former friend, and after defeating him, first at Cibalis in Pannonia, and then near Hadrianople, he compelled him to purchase peace by the surrender of all his European dominions except Thrace. Soon after this Constantine named his sons, Crispus and Constantine, his successors in the empire, and promulgated many good and useful laws. He ordered the discontinuance of crucifixion as a punishment, and provided for the support of the children of destitute parents by the state. Slavery was discouraged, and acts of oppression committed by the rich against the poor were allowed to be punished by the provincial magistrates, without the chance of escape by means of the old form of appeal to Rome. Though celibacy was allowed, concubinage was forbidden; and paganism, though the practice of its rites was still allowed, was discountenanced. The year 320 was remarkable for an order for the strict observance of Sunday, the Christian Sabbath, throughout the Roman empire, work and manual labour of all kinds being forbidden.

The good work of internal reorganisation which Constantine had entered on so zealously, the encouragement of all that was good and honourable, and the suppression of all that was bad and vicious, was not carried on without interruption. Twice in 322 A.D. the Goths

and Sarmatians crossed the Danube and entered Panonnia, Moesia, and Illyricum, and twice did Constantine beat them back within their boundaries. Indeed, so complete was the second campaign, that the Goths were glad to enter into alliance with Rome, and as the northern tribes had frequently done before, furnish recruits to the Roman army. In one of these campaigns a body of retreating Goths had been followed by the Roman troops into Thracian territory, which belonged to Licinius. The eastern emperor affected to look on this as

**323** a violation of his rights, and prepared for war. A terrible battle ensued before Hadrianople, in July, A.D. in which Licinius was defeated. The conqueror and his son Crispus lost no time in following up the advantage that they had gained, and pursued Licinius first to Byzantium, and then to Chalcedon. Another battle ensued at Chrysopolis, now Scutari, in September with the same result as before. Licinius surrendered, and was permitted to retire to Thessalonica, where he was put to death in the following year on an alleged charge of conspiring against Constantine. The whole of the empire now fell under the sway of Constantine, who made his son, Constantius, Cæsar, as well as his elder brothers, Crispus and Constantine.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Promulgation of the Edict of Milan in favour of the Christians.....	A.D. 313	Invasion of the Goths and Sarmatians.....	A.D. 322
Civil war between Constantine and Licinius. The latter, defeated at Cibalis and Hadrianople, resigns all his European possessions except Thrace.....	„ 314	Licinius again takes up arms against Constantine .....	„ 323
Crispus and Constantine, Cæsars.....	„ 317	Licinius defeated at Hadrianople .....	„ 323
		Constantine master of the whole of the Empire .....	„ 323
		Licinius put to death at Thessalonica .....	„ 324

#### 5. CONSTANTINE THE GREAT ALONE.

The year 323 witnessed, as we have seen, the close of a struggle of seventeen years for supremacy among the emperors by the elevation of Constantine, truly called the Great, to the undivided throne of the Roman empire. Being now left without a rival to divide his power, he resolved to establish Chris-



tianity on a solid basis throughout the whole of his dominions. He had already forbidden the execution on the cross, as it has been said, as derogatory to the Christian religion. He now ordered the erection in all parts of the empire of churches for the worship of God; he commanded that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the bishops should be exactly obeyed; and Arius, a presbyter of Alexandria, having taught certain things that were considered heretical by the leading bishops of the Church, Constantine caused the First General Council of the Church to assemble at Nicæa, or Nice, in Bithynia, to settle the fundamental points and doctrines of the Christian faith. This council assembled in July, 325 A.D., and was attended by 318 bishops from all parts of the empire. Arius was sent into retirement to Illyricum, and died 336 A.D.

The year following that in which the Council of Nice was held the emperor visited Rome, and this period was also marked by a terrible occurrence in the emperor's family. The first wife of Constantine, whom he had divorced, had borne him a son Crispus, who was made Cæsar, together with his half-brothers Constantine, Constantius, and Constans, and his cousin, the young Licinius, son of Licinius and Constantine's sister Constantia. Different accounts of the causes which led to the disgrace and death of Crispus are related, but the most probable is that Crispus, jealous of Constantius, who had been appointed to the chief command in Gaul, demanded a share in the empire as Augustus, which Constantine was not inclined to grant. It is supposed that he and his cousin Licinius then entered into a conspiracy against the emperor, for which they were arrested and sent to Pola, in Istria, where both the young men were put to death. Constantine was a good father and a just man, and, in consenting to the death of his eldest son, he must have been well assured of his guilt, and the danger that might be constantly hanging over him and threatening him if the ambitious young prince had been permitted to live.

It was probably this occurrence that inspired Constantine with such a dislike to Rome that he transferred the seat of government from Rome to Byzantium, or, as it was afterwards called, Constantinople. The empire had long been verging to ruin, but this impolitic measure precipitated its downfall for subsequently it gradually lan-

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guished, and at length sunk into annihilation. However, the ideas of Constantine were vast and worthy of an ambitious mind. He designed to build a city which at once might be the capital and metropolis of the world. For this purpose he made choice of a site at Chalcedon, in Asia Minor, on the opposite side of the channel of the Bosphorus; but it is related that, in laying out the ground-plan, an eagle caught up the line, and flew with it over to Byzantium. It was, therefore, thought expedient to fix the seat of empire in this place, which was situated on a plain that rose gently from the water, commanded that strait which unites the Mediterranean with the Euxine Sea, and was furnished with all the advantages which the most indulgent climate could bestow. He beautified this city with the most magnificent edifices; divided it into fourteen regions; built a capitol, an amphitheatre, two theatres, many churches, and several baths, porticoes, reservoirs for water, and aqueducts, and other public works; and, having thus rendered it equal to the magnificence of his idea, he gave it the name of New Rome, which title was soon abandoned for that of Constantinople, or the "city of Constantine."

It will be necessary here to stop and review the constitution which Constantine accorded to his new city, the creation of a new Latin nobility, and the alterations that he made in the constitution of the empire. The following account is derived from Smith's "Ancient History," to which, and Gibbon's more voluminous "Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire," the student who desires fuller information on the subject is referred.

With regard to the constitution of the city, the inhabitants were exempt from taxes, and the land was looked upon as the property of the citizens. It was governed by a municipal body called the senate, but the functions of this body in no way resembled the old Roman senate, as it had nothing to do with regulating the government of the empire, which was ordered wholly and solely by the emperor himself. Constantine, indeed, created new officers under new titles, who were directly responsible to himself, and who derived their power and honours immediately from him. These officers were divided into five ranks or grades:—*Illustres*, or the illustrious; *spectabiles*, or worthy of regard; *clarissimi*, or most distinguished; *perfectissimi*, most blameless; and *egregii*, distin-

guished. It is difficult, in the present day, to give the exact force of the Latin terms in English equivalents, but their relations and meaning will best be seen by considering the primary meaning and etymology of each word. Thus the *egregii* were men who took rank immediately above the untitled mass of the people; they were raised one step out of the common herd, as it were (*e*, from or out of; *grex*, a flock or herd), and formed the first rank of the new nobility, commencing from the lowest order of the new social hierarchy. The *perfectissimi* (*per*, through or thoroughly; *facio*, I make or do) were men who might be said to have carried out the duties of life in a thorough manner, and who were entitled, being blameless or faultless in this respect, to stand on the next step of the new stage of honour. In these two grades were included all who were worthy of honour, but not sufficiently so to be raised to senatorial rank, senators being considered as the *clarissimi*, or men whose conduct, &c., had rendered them most distinguished. Among the *spectabiles* and *illustres* were included all the men of the highest rank. The latter comprehended the consuls for the year, who were still nominated by the emperor, but whose duties were confined to the superintendence of the public games, and to mark the years as they glided by with their names; the nobles, or patricians, who numbered in their ranks the servants of the state who had won eminence by long and honourable service, and whose claims were recognised by the emperor in elevating them to this rank; and the Prætorian prefects. Among the *spectabiles* were to be found the vice-prefects, or vicars under the prefects; the military commanders of provinces, who were styled *comites* and *duces*, or, in modern parlance, counts and dukes, the latter being then the inferior instead of the superior title of honour, as in the present day. The *clarissimi* numbered in their ranks the 116 officers who governed the subdivisions of the provinces, and who bore the title of consulars, correctors, and presidents. These subdivisions, however, were governed by proconsuls, who were numbered among the *spectabiles*. The governors of the subdivisions were jurists—that is to say, men who had risen into eminence as lawyers.

Like Diocletian, Constantine divided the empire into four parts, but each part was placed under a Prætorian prefect, a civil functionary who bore no resemblance to the old prefect

of the Prætorian guard, but was a lieutenant of the emperor, to whom everyone else in the prefecture was responsible. These officers held their post during pleasure, and were liable to be superseded at any moment. The four prefectures were divided into thirteen dioceses, each governed by a vicar or vice-prefect, except in one case, which will be pointed out, and two proconsulates. The dioceses were subdivided into about 116 districts. Let us now see what the Prætorian prefectures were, and what each included.

I. The Prefecture of the East embraced five dioceses, each under a vice-prefect. These were:—1. Thrace and Lower Moesia, in Europe; 2. Pontus; 3. Asia; 4. Cilicia, Syria, Mesopotamia, and Arabia, whose vicar was styled the Count of the East; and 5. Egypt and the Cyrenaica. II. The Prefecture of Illyricum, which embraced—1. Pannonia, Dacia, and Illyricum, which was governed directly by the prefect himself; 2. the diocese of Macedonia; and 3. the proconsulate of Achaia. III. The Prefecture of Italy, which contained two dioceses and one proconsulate, namely—1. Northern Italy, Rhætia, Noricum and part of Pannonia, and Western Illyria, composing the diocese of Italy; 2. Mauretania, or the greater part of it, Numidia, &c., composing the diocese of Africa; and the proconsulate of Africa Proper, or the old territory of Carthage. IV. The Prefecture of the Gauls, containing three dioceses, namely—1. Spain and the western part of Mauretania, forming the diocese of Spain; 2. Gaul, or the diocese of the Seven Provinces; and 3. Britain. Rome and Constantinople were each placed under prefects of equal rank and importance with the others. The authority of the prefect of Constantinople extended for a hundred miles round the city; but the prefect of Rome governed the peninsula of Italy, beginning at the northern limits of Etruria and Umbria, and the island of Sicily as well.

The defence of the frontiers was entrusted to officers styled *magistri militum*, or masters of the soldiers, eight in number, and stationed in pairs, one commanding the cavalry and the other the infantry, on the Rhine, the Upper and Lower Danube, and the Euphrates. Under these superior officers the counts and dukes held command over certain portions of the frontier which were assigned to them. The standing army maintained on the frontier, and called the borderers, amounted to about 650,000 men. The interior was protected

by troops to whom the name of palatines was given. The emperor's household was regulated by seven high officers of state:—(1) The prefect of the bedchamber, a functionary who had charge of the private apartments; (2) the master of the offices, who seems to have discharged duties similar to those of the mayors of the palace under the early kings of France; (3) the quæstor, a legal functionary who composed the emperor's edicts, &c.; (4 and 5) the public and private treasurers, whose duties are sufficiently indicated by their names; and (6 and 7) the commanders of the imperial body-guard, who bore the unmilitary title of "counts of the domestics." The expenses of the court were defrayed by tribute, which was levied in the form of a poll-tax throughout the empire once in every fifteen years.

Little of importance happened after Constantine had commenced his new city, and inaugurated fresh divisions and modes of government for the empire. The year after that in which Constantinople was founded on the site of Byzantium was signalised by a fresh outbreak among the Goths, who attacked the frontier and met with a total defeat from the Roman troops, under the emperor and his son Constantine. The year of his death found the former busy in preparing for a war with Sapor II., king of Persia, who had attacked the eastern frontiers. He had quitted Constantinople and got as far as Nicomedia, where he was taken ill and died, after receiving the rite of baptism from Eusebius, bishop of Nicomedia. He expired May 22, 337 A.D., in the sixty-fourth year of his age, according to some, and the sixty-sixth according to others, and in the thirty-second year of his reign, dating from his first assumption of power in Britain, after the death of his father.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The bishops of the Christian Church summoned to the first general council at Nice, to decide in the matter of Arius .....	July, A.D. 325	Reorganisation and fresh partition of the Roman empire .....	A.D. 331
Visit of Constantine to Rome. Conspiracy and death of Crispus ..	.. 326	Invasion of the Goths repulsed by the emperor and his son Constantine .....	.. 331
Foundation of Constantinople on the site of Byzantium.....	.. 330	Death of Constantine at the city of Nicomedia, during preparations for war with Persia, May 22, ..	337

**ROMAN EMPERORS FROM DIOCLETIAN TO CONSTANTINE THE GREAT.**

Diocletian .....	A.D. 284.....	Abdicated .....	A.D. 305
Maximianus .....	„ 286.....	„ .....	„ 306
Constantius Chlorus .....	„ 305.....	Died .....	„ 306
Galerius .....	„ 305.....	„ .....	„ 311
Constantine I. ....	„ 306.....	„ .....	„ 337
Maxentius .....	„ 306.....	Drowned .....	„ 312
Maximianus restored .....	„ 306.....	Strangled .....	„ 310
Severus .....	„ 306.....	Committed suicide ...	„ 307
Licinius .....	„ 307.....	Killed .....	„ 324

\* \* Constantine I., called the Great, sole emperor from 323 to his death.

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**CHAPTER IX.**

**RENEWED STRUGGLE FOR POWER.—ULTIMATE DIVISION OF THE EMPIRE.**

**337 A.D. to 395 A.D.**

**I. CONSTANTINE II.—CONSTANS AND CONSTANTIUS II.**

CONSTANTINE, as it has been said, raised his sons Constantine and Constantius to the rank of Cæsars at an early age, and elevated his third son by the Empress Fausta, Constans by name, to the same position, in the year 333 A.D. Two years after this he regulated the succession, giving Gaul, Spain, and Britain to Constantine, the east to Constantius, and Illyricum, Italy, and Africa to Constans. His half-brother, Dalmatius, the son of Constantius Chlorus and Theodora, had two sons, Dalmatius and Hannibalianus. These he raised to the rank of princes of the blood royal, as well as his own sons, and assigned Macedonia and Achaia as an inheritance to the former, and Pontus and Cappadocia to the latter. However, after the death of Constantine, the ministers and generals at the court of Constantinople, engaged in secret consultations, to exclude the nephews of the deceased emperor from the succession which he had intended for them, and procured a declaration from the soldiers, that the sons of Constantine alone should participate in the empire. This Constantius

thought it best to secure by putting Dalmatius and Hannibalianus to death, which was done accordingly, and at the same time their father, Dalmatius, and other members of the royal family were murdered in cold blood. The dominions of Dalmatius were added to the territory of Constans, and those of Hannibalianus to the eastern provinces of Constantius.

A disagreement taking place between Constantine II. and Constans, his brother, in consequence of the former making a demand on the latter to give up Africa to him, a struggle ensued, and Constantine II. having crossed the Alps and marched against Constans, was drawn into an ambuscade, where he was slain with his attendants.

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Constans then assumed dominion over his late brother's territory, and carried on numerous wars for the next ten years on the frontiers, but his misrule at last caused a revolt in Gaul, which was headed by a barbarian, Magnentius by name, who killed Constans and caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of the west. Constantius II., who had been engaged during the whole of his reign in carrying on war against Sapor II., king of Persia, marched against Magnentius and defeated him at Mursa, near the confluence of the Drave and the Danube. Magnentius fled into Gaul, but Constantius pursued him and defeated him a second time, which caused him to kill himself in despair. Thus the whole Roman empire was once more united under the sway of a single emperor.

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It happened that on the murder of most of the members of the royal family, after the death of Constantine the Great—a deed which is generally ascribed to Constantius—two youths, Gallus and Julian, the sons of Julius Constantius, a half-brother of the late emperor, escaped the massacre, but although they were permitted to live they were brought up under restraint. The death of Constans and the usurpation of the government of the western provinces by Magnentius, made it necessary for Constantius to leave the east and take up his residence at Constantinople, and then the new ruler of the Roman empire, who had no son (and whose only child, a daughter, was a posthumous child born ten years after), turned his thoughts to the succession, and appointed his cousin Gallus his heir, and gave him his sister Constantia, the widow of Hannibalianus in marriage. He also gave him the command of

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the eastern provinces, but Gallus, untaught by his previous experiences of adversity and captivity, soon showed himself in his true colours as a tyrannical despot. The people, groaning under the evils and wrongs of his administration, sent to Constantius, and Constantius despatched an envoy to bring about a change of affairs. This man, Domitian by name, was murdered at Antioch, and the emperor found it necessary to recall Gallus. On his way to the im-

**354** perial court he was arrested and sent to Pola, where  
**A.D.** he was put to death. His brother Julian, who was also summoned to court by Constantius, narrowly escaped the same fate, but he was allowed to take up his residence at Athens.

He had not been there long before the activity of all the various tribes on the frontiers, from the Franks and Alemanni in the west, to the Persians in the east, and the constant inroads that they made on the empire, rendered it necessary for Constantius to send for Julius, and, having appointed him

**355** his successor on the throne, he caused him to  
**A.D.** marry his youngest sister, Helena. The first campaign of the new Cæsar was against the Germans, who had crossed the Rhine, and were laying waste Gaul, and here he was employed for three years, until 359 A.D.

During this time Constantius had not been idle in his capacity of head either of the church or of the state. He had shown, like his father in his last days, a disposition towards Arianism, and a desire to persecute and punish all who might differ from him in opinion. Even Athanasius, the bishop of Alexandria, and the unflinching opponent of Arius at the first general council of the Church at Nice, had fallen under Constantine's displeasure shortly before his death, and had been expelled from his bishopric 335 A.D. and 338 A.D. Constans, however, had afforded him protection, and remembering this the emperor summoned a council of bishops at Milan in 355 A.D., who condemned the teaching and tenets of Athanasius, and the prelate was compelled to quit his see and retire to a spot where he could remain in concealment. After doing this and sending Julian into Gaul,

**359** Constantius marched against the Goths and Sarma-  
**A.D.** tians, and was preparing for an expedition against the Quadi, when the news reached him that the Persians had occupied Mesopotamia, and had laid siege to



Amida, an important city on the Tigris. Obligated to march at once to the defence of the eastern frontier, Constantius instantly set about raising levies and organising troops, but before his preparations were completed Amida had fallen. Stung by the progress that the Persians were making, and jealous of the partiality of the troops of the western provinces for their young commander, he sought to weaken him by ordering him to send at once to Antioch, whither Constantius had proceeded, several of his best legions and a certain contingent from each of the others under his command. This order reached Julian at a moment of difficulty and danger, when the Picts and Scots were ravaging Britain, and when there was every reason to apprehend that, should his forces be diminished, the Germans, whom fear only kept in awe, would soon re-enter Gaul.

However, he determined, in this critical situation, to sacrifice his feelings to his duty, and show the promptitude of his obedience to the imperial will. He therefore sent for Decentius, who was charged with the emperor's commission, and professed his acquiescence, but hinted that the troops required had enlisted on condition of not being compelled to pass the Alps, and that there would be danger in violating the engagement. The prediction was fully verified by the event. No sooner was Decentius ready to depart with the troops, than the murmurs of discontent spread from tent to tent, and at last the soldiers openly complained that they were sent to the extremity of the world. Julian spoke to them with kindness, gratefully commemorated their past exploits, and recommended to them a prompt and cheerful obedience to the commands of Constantius. The soldiers heard the latter part of his speech in gloomy silence; and the officers, whom the Cæsar had entertained, after retiring from the feast, mutually lamented the severity of their fate, which tore them from a general whom they loved, and from a country which contained all they held dear. A conspiracy, the only expedient which could prevent the dreaded separation, was proposed, as has been imagined, by some warm partisans of Julian, and approved by the whole army. The ferment continued to increase; and at midnight the impatient multitude encompassed the palace of the Cæsar, and pronounced the irrevocable words, "Julian Augustus."

Julian at first refused the honour, but being informed by

the soldiers, "that if he wished to live, he must consent to reign," he accepted the dignity of Augustus, and sent ambassadors to apologise to Constantius, and to concede everything, except the sovereignty of the provinces beyond the Alps. Constantius, however, required him to renounce the rank of Augustus, and acknowledge himself a dependent on the supreme head of the empire. It was impossible for Julian to retreat, and the refusal of Constantius to admit him to a share in the empire, left him no alternative but to march on Constantinople. Constantius, on hearing this, gave up his expedition against the Persians, and hastened back to Europe to meet his cousin. His end, however, was at hand, and he died on the road, near Tarsus, in Cilicia, November 3, 361 A.D., in the forty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. This prince was temperate, generally speaking, but jealous of contradiction and the success of others, and may be said to have inherited the defects without the abilities of his father.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Murder of Dalmatius and others of the royal family by Constantius A.D. 337	Julian appointed successor to Constantius II. .... A.D. 355
Quarrel between Constantine II. and Constans. Death of the former: the government of the west assumed by Constans ... .. 340	Campaign of Julian in Gaul begun ..... „ 356
Revolt of Magnentius and death of Constans .. 350	Athanasius driven into exile by Constantius .. 355
Magnentius twice defeated by Constantius II. Commits suicide. Constantius II. sole emperor ..... 351	Departure of Constantius for the eastern frontier .. 359
	Capture of Amida by the Persians..... „ 360
	Julian proclaimed emperor by the soldiers in the west..... „ 361
	Death of Constantius, Nov. 3, .. 361

## 2. JULIAN THE APOSTATE.

Julian now acquired the undisturbed possession of the Roman empire; and the reformation of evil abuses formed the first object of his attention. He then endeavoured to suppress Christianity. For this purpose he began by reforming the pagan theology, and sought to raise the character of its priests, by inculcating

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purity of life and sanctity of morals, thereby bearing involuntary testimony to the superior excellence of that religion, which he laboured to abolish. Without persecuting, he attacked the Christians by the more dangerous policy of treating them with contempt, and removing them, as visionaries, from employments and offices of trust.

This prince, after ascending the throne, seems to have given himself up wholly to the duties of his station. He suffered neither his body nor his mind to be relaxed by sensual indulgences: a hasty dinner succeeded a morning spent in business; his supper was still more light; and, after a short interval of rest, he was awakened by the entrance of fresh secretaries, who had slept the preceding day. He disdained alike the amusements of the theatre and the circus; and he wrapped himself up in pagan philosophy, with which his mind had been early imbued. Though of a low stature and an unpleasing aspect, he was well-made, active, and uncommonly expert in all his exercises. His memory was extremely tenacious, and he possessed much penetration and presence of mind. He seemed to possess a love of freedom; and though his apostasy has tarnished the lustre of his character, he was not wholly destitute of liberality, even to those who opposed his favourite prejudices.

A father having disinherited his son, in consequence of his renouncing Christianity for paganism, Julian ordered them both into his presence, and thus addressed the father:—"I think nothing more unreasonable than the use of force in matters of religion. Allow your son to follow one different from yours, as I do you to profess one different from mine, though it is in my power to oblige you to renounce it." The father answered—"What can you say in favour of a wretch detested by Heaven, who has preferred falsehood to truth, and abjured the faith of the true God, to bend the knee before an idol?" To this the emperor replied, "Here invectives are ill-placed;" and then, addressing himself to the son, he said, "Since your father is deaf to your entreaties, and pays no regard to my recommendation, I will take care of you."

The restoration of the ancient temple at Jerusalem attracted the ambitious mind of the emperor, who hoped that the completion of such an undertaking would, at least, furnish a specious argument against the faith of prophecy and the truth of the Christian revelation; but neither the power of a great

monarch, the resources of an empire, nor the enthusiasm of the Jewish people, who contributed both their fortune and their labour, could effectuate the purpose. Ammianus Marcellinus asserts that "horrible balls of fire breaking out from the foundations, with frequent and reiterated attacks, rendered the place from time to time inaccessible to the scorched and blasted workmen; and the victorious element continuing in this manner obstinately and resolutely bent, as it were, to drive them to a distance, the undertaking was entirely abandoned."

Julian, as a pagan, was a slave to the most bigoted superstition, believing in omens and auguries, and fancying himself favoured with actual intercourse with the heathen gods and goddesses. To avenge the injuries which the empire had

**363** suffered from the Persians, he marched into the heart of Asia, and was for some time victorious;

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but at last, discord prevailing among his officers, and being afraid that provisions would fail if he attempted to return as he had come, along the banks of the Euphrates, he determined to attempt to make his way home through Assyria. During the retreat the Persian cavalry, as formidable as the Parthians of old, hovered about the line of march in clouds, and destroyed immense numbers of the Romans by their continual assaults. At last Julian himself fell in a skirmish, after showing undaunted bravery as a soldier and great capacity as a general, at the age of thirty-one, and after a reign of one year and eight months from the death of Constantius. Infidels have exalted his character to the highest pitch of perfection, whilst Christians have thrown a dark shade even over those virtues which he really possessed. It is probable, however, that his bad qualities had not time to develop their full malignity. He was the last prince of the family of Constantine.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Entry of Julian as emperor into Constantinople	March of Julian from Antioch against Persia
December, A.D. 361	March, A.D. 363
Attempt of Julian to rebuild Jerusalem .....	Death of the Emperor Julian .....
„ 362	June 26, „ 363

#### 3. JOVIAN.

The Roman troops were dispirited by the death of their

commander, and it appeared to be no easy task to find an aspirant to the vacant throne. The imperial dignity was at first offered by the soldiers to Sallustius, the Prætorian prefect of the East, a man of great age, who on this account declined to assume the responsibilities of government. At last their choice fell on Flavius Claudius Jovianus, the chief of the late emperor's household, who purchased a free retreat from the dominions of Persia by the ignominious surrender of five provinces, which had been formerly ceded to Galerius. Jovian, indeed, had no other resource but to give up the provinces, in order to save the army. For doing this no one blamed him, but he gave great offence throughout the empire for not going to war at once for their recovery, and for observing his engagements with the Persians. He was a professor of Christianity, and restored to the Christians all their privileges as subjects of the empire. He was also an opponent of Arianism, and restored Athanasius to his post at Alexandria. On his return from Antioch to Constantinople he died on the way, but whether by poison, or of suffocation from the fumes of charcoal that was burning in the room in which he slept while halting at Dadastana, in Galatia, is uncertain. His death took place February 16, 364 A.D., when he was thirty-three years old, and had occupied the throne only for the brief space of seven months.

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## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Election of Jovian to the vacant throne of the Roman empire, July, A.D. 363	Death of Jovian by poison, as it is supposed, February, A.D. 364
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## EMPERORS FROM CONSTANTINE I. TO JOVIAN.

Constantine I. (sole monarch)..... A.D. 323	Constantius II. (sole emperor, 350)..... A.D. 337
Constantine II. (died 340)..... „ 337	Julian the Apostate... „ 361
Constans (died 350)..... „ 337	Jovian..... „ 363

## CHAPTER X.

FROM THE DIVISION OF THE ROMAN EMPIRE INTO THE  
EASTERN AND WESTERN EMPIRES TO THE FALL OF THE  
LATTER.

364 A.D. to 476 A.D.

## 1. VALENTINIAN (IN THE WEST).—VALENS (IN THE EAST).

THE Roman empire remained without a master ten days, after which Flavius Valentinianus, a native of Cibalis, in Pannonia, who by his matchless strength and dexterity had gained the esteem and respect of the army, was elected emperor by the soldiers. He associated with himself in the government his brother Flavius Valens, and occasioned the final separation of the great Roman empire into the Western and Eastern empires, by assigning to his brother the prefecture of the East, with the capital of Constantinople, while he retained Illyricum, Italy, Spain, Gaul, and the western provinces, and fixed his court at Milan.

This important event happened in June, 364 A.D., and, in speaking of it as the *final* separation of the Roman empire into two parts, it may be considered that this was really the case, although the reins of power were again held by one energetic and able man for a brief period a few years later. The Eastern and Western empires, then, date in reality from the year 364 A.D., and these names are the appellations, according to their relative position, of the two parts into which the Roman empire had broken up, speaking figuratively, through its own weight. It was too unwieldy to be governed well and wisely by one man, and however well affected the bulk of his representatives in different parts of the empire might be, there were some amongst the whole body ready to swerve from their allegiance when temptation came; and though rebellion might ultimately be suppressed, yet the distance of all the frontier provinces from the seat of government was so great, and the means of transit from one point to another so limited, as far as speed was concerned, especially when compared with those of the present day, that a revolt could not be promptly or readily put down, but might run its course for many months, with infinite damage of property and loss of life. It will be necessary to consider the course of events in each empire si-

multaneously until the Western empire was blotted out altogether, and disappeared from the page of history to make room for the new realms of Europe that were founded on its fragments.

At the period of the separation of the Eastern and Western empires the barbarians were pressing on the frontiers of the Roman empire on all sides, and were gradually pushing their inroads to the very centre. The Germans attacked Gaul and Rætia; the Sarmatians and Quadi overran Pannonia; the Picts, Scots, and Saxons invaded Britain; the Asturians were in open revolt in Spain, and the Moors in Africa. It required all the bravery and conduct of Valentinian, and all the skill of his generals, to make head against so many powerful nations, and repress such formidable invasions, but Valentinian and his generals were fully equal to the task that they had undertaken. The frontiers of the empire along the Rhine were rendered safer than they had been for some years by the signal defeats which the Alemanni suffered in 365 and 368 A.D. The Saxons, a predatory tribe of north-western Germany, who were beginning their inroads on British soil, were checked in 370 A.D. by Severus; while in Britain Theodosius drove back the Picts and Scots, and held under perfect control the district confined by the wall of Hadrian in the south and the wall of Agricola in the north, and gave to it the name of Valentia. This was done in 367 A.D., and later, in 374 A.D., Theodosius did good service to Valentinian again by reducing Africa to obedience. But at this time the reign of Valentinian was nearly over, for in the following year he died suddenly, having broken a blood-vessel while receiving some envoys from the Quadi, who had come to sue for peace after the emperor had defeated them in several battles, and laid waste the country now called Hungary. His death took place at Bregetio, in Pannonia, November 17, 375 A.D., in the fifty-sixth year of his age. He left his territories to his son Gratian, who had been admitted to a share of the imperial power when a mere child in 367 A.D.; but a division of them was made between him and his younger brother Valentinian II., Gratian having Britain, Gaul, and Spain, and Valentinian II. Italy, Illyricum, and Africa.

The domestic administration of Valentinian I. was wise, equitable, and politic, and he was a favourer of the Christian religion. His stern disposition generally rendered him insen-

sible to the dictates of humanity, and he considered clemency as a weakness, and severity as a virtue. Though often duped, he took the most sedulous pains to discover the truth, and with unrelenting severity punished every deviation in others from their duty. His wife Severa having unjustly acquired an estate, he first obliged her to restore it, and then repudiated her for the fault. He exhibited many examples of torture, and even burnt alive several unfaithful officers; yet the punishments which he inflicted seldom operated as a warning on others. Indeed, he was so much the slave of self-conceit, and entertained so high an opinion of his own talents and sagacity, that it was probably considered as meritorious to deceive him. No one dared to advise him, lest they should offend him, for he was easily provoked; and his anger, when once excited, was little short of madness. However, he was not without bright parts in his character. In an age abounding with religious contention, his wise and moderate administration contributed to soften the manners and abate the prejudices of religious factions.

Following the plan of tracing the history of the Eastern and Western empires simultaneously, we must return now to Valens, who acquired possession of the former in 364 A.D. In the second year of his reign, during the absence of Valens at Antioch, whither he had gone to make preparations for the

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prosecution of the war with Persia, a competitor for the throne arose in the person of Procopius, a kinsman of Julian. After being defeated twice by Salust, the Prætorian præfect, Procopius was betrayed by his troops, and, being taken prisoner, was beheaded by order of the emperor; and his death was followed by the execution of several persons of high rank who were suspected of disaffection towards the empire.

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Soon after a persecution on matters of religious faith was set on foot in Constantinople and the East. Valens intemperately supported the Arian heresy, and inveterately persecuted the orthodox, against whom, as he thought disgrace, exclusion from offices, spoliation of property, and even exile, insufficient, he also employed tortures and death. With all the superstitious prejudices of a little mind, he directed his attention equally to diviners, sorcerers, astrologers, deliverers of oracles, fortune-tellers, and the deceivers and deceived of every kind. Every book which contained circles or lines, figures of



animals, or delineations of the human body, was sought for with the most vexatious industry and persevering diligence, and considered as the abominable collections of a diabolical science, and an instrument of sorcery, deserving to be committed to the flames. Unhappy were those in whose possession such manuscripts were found, which, though there only by chance, brought the possessor the same punishment as if they had been applied to forbidden arts. Valens, on being informed that some person had consulted an oracle to know who was to be his successor, and was told that his name began with *Theod*, ordered all the bearers of those fatal letters to be massacred. The persecution fell heaviest on the pagan philosophers, whom Julian the Apostate had so much encouraged, and who constituted a kind of religious society in which polytheism was professed. This conduct alienated from him the minds of his subjects, and rendered him odious and detestable.

After the suppression of the revolt of Procopius, Valens relinquished for a time the idea of carrying on war with Persia, and returned to his capital. He was also the more inclined to take this step on account of the assistance that the Goths had rendered to Procopius, and which made it necessary for him to undertake an expedition against them. The war which ensued lasted two years, but in the third year a crushing defeat, which followed a long series of lesser reverses, induced Athanaric, the chief of the Visigoths, to conclude peace with Valens. This gave the emperor of the East leisure to turn his attention to the regulation of the administration of his kingdom; and in this he had been engaged for about six years when his brother Valentinian, the emperor of the West, died, as it has been said, leaving his dominions to his sons Gratian and Valentinian II.

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## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Valentinian I. and Valens.—Partition of the empire into the Eastern and Western empires .....	A.D. 364	Defeat of the Picts and Scots by Theodosius... A.D. 367
Revolt of Procopius against Valens .....	„ 366	Defeat of the Alemanni by Valentinian .....
		„ 368
		Defeat of the Visigoths.—Athanaric sues for peace .....
		„ 369

Saxons defeated by Severus .....	A.D. 370	Death of Valentinian I., and accession of Gratian and Valentinian II. in the West.....	A.D. 375
Pacification of Africa by Theodosius.....	,, 374		

\*.\* Events belonging to the Eastern empire are distinguished by being printed in italics.

## 2. VALENS (IN THE EAST).—GRATIAN AND VALENTINIAN II. (IN THE WEST).

At this time a Tartar race from the interior of north-western Asia had been slowly forcing their way westward from their original settlements, and were steadily but surely compelling the Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths, to fall back from their territories along the banks of the Borysthenes and Dniester, and to encroach upon the lands of their kinsmen the Visigoths. The active hordes of warriors who were thus coming westward and carrying everything before them were the Huns, a great nationality destined to work great changes in Europe, and to occupy and give their name to Hungary, a rich and fertile country of central Europe, in which their descendants are to be found even at this very day. It was in the year 376 A.D. that the Huns entered Europe, and, after conquering the Alani, came into collision with the Visigoths on the Danube. In the battles that ensued fortune was on the side of the Huns, and the Visigoths were compelled to seek aid from Valens, or rather from his representatives at Constantinople, for Valens himself was at Antioch, preparing to move against the Persians as soon as they crossed the frontier. The emperor's viceroy at the capital gave the Visigoths permission to cross the Danube and settle in Mœsia, and about 200,000 of them took advantage of the favour thus granted to them to migrate to Roman soil. Immediately after a number of Ostrogoths did the same, but without permission, and Mœsia was soon swarming with armed barbarians. At length the exactions of the Roman administrators in charge of the various provinces and districts drove the Goths to arms under their chiefs Fritigern and Alavivus, and it was not long before Mœsia and Thrace was forcibly occupied by and at the mercy of the Visigoths, Ostrogoths, and Alani that had settled there. A Roman army was defeated near Marcianopolis, and the tidings of this, and of the footing the barbarians had secured

in the north-eastern part of the empire, brought Valens back in haste from Antioch. He had appealed to Gratian for aid against the northern hordes, but a victory obtained over the enemy by Sebastianus, one of the Roman generals, determined Valens on attacking the Goths before his allies could reach the spot. The Goths were advantageously posted before Hadrianople, and repulsed every attack of the Romans, and defeated every attempt to drive them from their positions. The people generally cared little whether Valens was successful or not, and when he left Constantinople the last time, it is said that its inhabitants swore that he should never re enter that city and find them there. "May Valens be burnt alive!" became a common imprecation, and proved prophetic. The battle was long and obstinate, and contested on both sides with the greatest determination. At last the Romans gave way, and the bulk of the army perished in the pursuit and slaughter that followed. Valens being wounded in the engagement, which was fought on August 9, 378 A.D., was removed to a neighbouring cottage, which was set on fire by the enemy, and in it was consumed the emperor of the East. The Goths, unopposed, ravaged Achaia and Pannonia.

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During the closing years of the reign of Valens nothing of any importance had taken place in the West. By the death of Valens, Gratian, exclusive of his share of the West, now found himself possessed of the whole Eastern empire; and, sensible that this was a burden which he was unable to bear unassisted and alone, he prevailed on Theodosius, the son of the able officer of the same name, whose victories in Britain and Africa have been mentioned, and who had been put to death by the ungrateful Valens in 376 A.D., afterwards surnamed the Great, to become his associate in the honours and toils of empire; and on January 19, 379 A.D., after having beaten back the Sarmatians, who were hastening over the Danube in the track of the Goths, he accepted office, and became emperor of the East.

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## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

* Entry of the Huns of Western Asia into Europe ..... A.D. 376	Battle of Hadrianople.— Defeat and death of the Emperor Valens... A.D. 378
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### 3. GRATIAN AND VALENTINIAN II. (IN THE WEST.)—THEODOSIUS THE GREAT (IN THE EAST.)

Under the emperors Gratian and Theodosius religion was cherished, and its ministers obtained a very powerful influence in the state. The early fame of Gratian was equal to that of the most celebrated of the emperors of Rome; and, before he had finished his twentieth year, he had endeared himself by his amiable disposition, affable manners, courage, and conduct to his soldiers, his friends, and his people. However, the succeeding years of his reign undermined, in some degree, that reputation, the basis of which had been laid with so much care. After the death or removal of the faithful counsellors of his father, he became the dupe of less able, but more pliant ministers, who flattered his errors, or even created them.

The chief events of his reign after the accession of Theodosius to power in the East are the battles that he fought and fought with success against the Goths in Illyricum, the Alemanni on the Rhine, and the German invaders of Rætia. The defeat of the Germans in Rætia took place in 381, and it is after this time that Gratian began to suffer in the esteem of his subjects. In 383 A.D. Maximus, who had previously fought under Theodosius in Britain, was proclaimed by the troops there, and invaded Gaul; Gratian attempted to oppose him, but was obliged to fly, and being taken at Lyon in attempting to take refuge in Italy, was put to death.

Several important considerations, and chiefly that of allowing civil war to afford the barbarians an opportunity of resuming their attacks on the empire, induced Theodosius to accept the proffered alliance of the usurper and assassin of Gratian; and he only stipulated that Maximus should content himself with the countries beyond the Alps, and that Valentinian II., the brother of Gratian, should be secured in the sovereignty of Italy, Africa, and the western Illyricum. Maximus seemed to acquiesce in these conditions; but, at length, in direct violation of the treaty, he caused a considerable body of troops to be marched over the Alps, and expelling Valentinian, became for a short time the undisputed

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ruler of the West. He was, however, defeated by Theodosius, who abandoned him to the vengeance of the soldiers, and annexed to the states of Valen-

tinian those provinces which had been rescued from the usurper. The intervention of Theodosius was secured at this juncture by his marriage to the beautiful princess Galla, the sister of Valentinian II., and daughter of the Empress Justina, the wife of Valentinian I. As Valentinian II. was too young to exert any decided authority in his dominions, or even, if old enough, was not possessed of sufficient energy and determination to make his authority felt, Theodosius appointed to the command of the armies of the Western empire Arbogastes, a Frank, who had risen to eminence as a soldier in the emperor's employ.

The contention between the orthodox party and the Arians had by no means lessened in the time of Valentinian II. and Theodosius I. Justina, the mother of the former, was an earnest supporter of Arianism, and by her persuasions and teaching the young emperor was also led to become so. One of the fiercest contests for supremacy between the rival sections of the Church occurred at Milan in 385 A.D., when the famous Ambrose was bishop of that see. Justina, the empress-mother, had asked for one of the churches in Milan for the purpose of celebrating divine worship therein after the form adopted by the followers of Arius. She was defeated in her object, and after her death, which happened in 387 A.D., her son, Valentinian II., gave up his Arian predilections, and espoused the cause of orthodoxy. Theodosius I. had always been opposed to Arianism, and had always zealously striven to win over his subjects from paganism and Arianism, or heresy, as it is otherwise called, to a full profession of the orthodox faith. And this he effected without persecution, although his fierce and uncontrollable temper occasionally led him into some cruel excess, such as the massacre of Thessalonica in 390, where, in retaliation for an insurrection of the inhabitants against the troops stationed there, he caused the people to be assembled in the amphitheatre, and then given over to the vengeance of the soldiers. For this the bishop Ambrosius compelled the emperor to do public penance at Milan; and it was not until eight months had elapsed that Theodosius was considered purged of the crime of homicide, and received once more into the Church. From this moment the emperor redoubled his efforts to suppress paganism, which fell into desuetude about the close of his reign. At the same time it must be said to his honour

that he was a man of the greatest toleration, and that he never permitted the profession of paganism to be an obstacle to any man's advancement in the court or the army. It is sad to relate that, although this was the epoch which witnessed the decline and fall of paganism, it was also a time at which the original purity of Christianity became sullied and defaced by dissensions about points of comparatively trifling importance, as, indeed, Arianism may be considered, as it merely involves a matter of doctrinal teaching, and nothing of essential importance as affecting man's salvation, and by the encouragement of superstition by means of asserted miracles, and the claims of saints and relics to veneration and adoration.

It may be as well at this point of our narrative to glance at the early life and acts of the man under whom the whole of the Roman empire was shortly to pass, and become once more for a very short time an undivided realm. Havius Theodosius, or Theodosius I., to give him the title by which he is generally known, was the son, as it has been said, of the able general of the same name who fought with such marked success in Britain and Africa, and was beheaded by Valens, for what reason is not clear, at Carthage in 376 A.D. The family to which Theodosius belonged had settled in Spain, at Italica, near the modern Seville, and he may be regarded as a Spaniard of Roman extraction. He was born in 345 A.D., and accompanied his father from a very early age in all his campaigns. In 374 A.D. he had done good service to his country as duke of Moesia in rescuing the province from the Sarmatians, and in driving them back across the Danube. In this post he continued until his father's unmerited death, which caused him to retire to his estates in Spain, and there he remained until he was called by Gratian to become his colleague as emperor of the East. His subsequent successes against the Visigoths under Athanaric, Fritigern, and Alavivus have been mentioned, and how, when they were driven from their homes by countless hordes of Huns from the East, he located the Visigoths, who were compelled to cross the Danube, in Thrace and Lower Moesia (382 A.D.), and subsequently allotted lands in Phrygia, Lydia, and in Asia Minor to the Ostrogoths (386 A.D.). His baptism had been hastened—for men hesitated to receive the rites in those times until they really felt fit to do so, or death

was at hand—by a serious illness, which overtook him soon after his accession to the throne at Thessalonica, which for some years formed his head-quarters in conducting operations against the Goths. In 383 A.D., the year in which Gratian was murdered, he raised his son, Arcadius, to the rank of Augustus. The events of his reign subsequent to the death of Gratian have been related, and the thread of the story may now be resumed at the restoration of Valentinian II., to the dominions of which he had been dispossessed by Maximus, and the installation of the Frank general Arbogastes as the chief of his ministers. This was in 388 A.D., a period at which Theodosius may be regarded as being virtually the ruler of the entire empire, although the Western portion remained nominally under Valentinian II.

For three years Theodosius remained in Italy, and during this time occurred a serious insurrection at Antioch, produced by the pressure of the imperial taxes. It was suppressed without difficulty, and the emperor's pardon was freely granted to the inhabitants, who had as freely confessed the wrong of which they had been guilty. The rising at Thessalonica, which followed in 390 A.D., had not so fortunate a termination, as we have seen. In 391 A.D. he returned to Constantinople once more, and then took final measures for the suppression of paganism in his dominions.

No sooner had Theodosius quitted Italy than the aspiring ministers of the humane but timid Valentinian began to domineer over their master, and but 392  
a short time elapsed before the emperor of the A.D.  
West was strangled by Arbogastes at Vienne, in Gaul, May 15, 392 A.D. His death is said to have been determined on in consequence of his having declined to sanction some measures that had been proposed by Arbogastes. The artful Frank did not assume the purple himself, but invested with it Eugenius, who had made his way to honour and distinction by his reputation for eloquence. Two years elapsed before Theodosius was sufficiently prepared to avenge the death of his brother-in-law; but in 394 A.D. he marched against the usurper Eugenius and the traitorous Arbogastes, and defeated them in battle near Aquileia in Pannonia. The former fell on the field, and the latter committed suicide soon after the conflict. Theodosius was now the sole master of the Roman empire, but he was

not destined to enjoy his authority for any length of time. He had long been suffering from dropsy, and died at Milan on January 17, 395 A.D. This prince, who was deservedly surnamed the Great, was worthy of the best ages of the Roman state. He successfully repelled the encroachments of the barbarians, and, by wholesome laws, secured the prosperity of his people. After his death the empire was once more divided, and the separation was now a final one in every sense of the word. Theodosius left to his elder son, Arcadius, who had been named Augustus in 383 A.D., the throne of Constantinople, and to his younger son, Honorius, who had been called to the same rank ten years later, the sceptre of the West. Of these the former was only eighteen, and the latter no more than eleven years of age.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Theodosius I., called the Great, made emperor of the East .....	A.D. 379	by Theodosius against Arianism and paganism .....	A.D. 380
Defeat of Visigoths by Theodosius, and their settlement in Mœsia and Thrace .....	" 382	Massacre at Thessalonica ordered by Theodosius.....	" 390
Defeat of Ostrogoths, who receive lands in Asia Minor .....	" 386	Theodosius does penance for the massacre at Thessalonica .....	" 390
Revolt of Maximus and murder of Gratian ...	" 383	Murder of Valentinian II. by Arbogastes.	
Italy taken by Maximus from Valentinian II. ..	" 387	Eugenius made emperor of the West ..	" 392
Defeat and death of Maximus at Aquileia ..	" 388	Eugenius and Arbogastes defeated near Aquileia ..	" 394
Active measures taken		Death of Theodosius I. at Milan.....	" 394

## 4. ARCADIOUS (IN THE EAST).—HONORIUS (IN THE WEST).

Theodosius had appointed Rufinus guardian or minister to Arcadius, and Stilicho to Honorius. Rufinus  
**395** was a Gascon, and possessed diligence and capacity;  
 A.D. but pride, malice, and covetousness tarnished all his valuable qualities. Stilicho was a Vandal by origin, and his strength and stature admirably fitted him for the profession of arms, in which, by his prudence and valour, he had attained a high rank. Theodosius had recommended to him with his last breath the care of his sons and of the republic. Though Honorius himself and his court at Milan readily



acknowledged the ascendancy of Stilicho, he soon showed a desire of that superiority in the government of the East also, and for that purpose, by the aid of Gainas, a Goth, who was commander-in-chief of the troops of the Eastern empire, procured the assassination of Rufinus (Nov. 27, 395 A.D.). But though Stilicho gratified his revenge by the murder of his rival, his ambition was disappointed; and the Emperor Arcadius preferred to the stern genius of a foreign warrior, the obsequious arts of Eutropius, a minister of state, whose daughter he had married, and who was cruel, deceitful, ungrateful, and suspicious.

The death of Theodosius soon set the Goths in motion, and under their famous chief Alaric, who had succeeded Athanaric in 382 A.D., they burst like a torrent from the territories allotted to them in Mœsia and Thrace, and poured over Macedonia and Greece. Stilicho marched against them, but without any decisive result, and he was soon required by Eutropius and Gainas the Goth, who had now entered into an alliance to support and further each other's scheme, to withdraw his troops and retire to the dominions of Honorius. In Africa Stilicho successfully sustained the old fame of the Roman arms by putting down a widespread revolt in favour of Gildo, whom the people wished to make emperor. His next step to increase his power in the state was the marriage of his daughter Maria to the emperor Honorius, who was then fourteen years of age. This boy affords  
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another example of the dissimilarity of character that is so often found to exist between father and son. Tame and spiritless to a surprising degree, he possessed neither talents nor passions, and amused himself with feeding poultry and other avocations. However, the valour and abilities of Stilicho for a long time compensated for the incapacity and indolence of the monarch, and repelled the invasion of the barbarians, who now multiplied their attacks on all sides.

The Goths, under the conduct of the renowned Alaric, had spread their devastations to the very walls of Constantinople, and filled all Greece with the terror of their arms, after the withdrawal of the troops of Honorius, under Stilicho, from the peninsula. Alaric concluded a treaty with the ministers of Arcadius, by which he was recognised as duke of Illyricum. After reinforcing his army with fresh hordes of barbarians, this chief penetrated into Italy, in 402 A.D., and approached

the palace of Milan before the emperor was sensible of his danger. Honorius fled in haste to Ravenna, and shut himself up in that city, while Stilicho spent the winter in collecting troops with which to expel the barbarians from Milan. He attacked Alaric at Pollentia, near Turin, in the spring of 403 A.D., and completely defeated him in a great battle, in which several thousands were slain, and among the captives was the wife of Alaric, who was compelled to implore the clemency of the victor.

The chief of the Goths, however, collecting round him the remnants of his army, marched southward to attack and plunder Rome, but Stilicho, by forced marches, came up with him, and after some skirmishes, in which the advantage lay with the Romans, induced him to withdraw his troops beyond the line of the Po. Barely two years elapsed before a mixed

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force of Vandals, Suevi, Burgundians, and Alans crossed the Alps and entered Lombardy, under Radagaicus. They penetrated so far south that they laid siege to Florence, but the siege was raised by Stilicho, who entangled them in the defiles of the Apennines, after defeating them before the city, and compelled Radagaicus to surrender.

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The remnants of the immense host that had followed Radagaicus into Lombardy, struck westward, and crossing the Alps, entered Gaul, in which the barbarians remained for about three years, plundering every part of the country, and then passed over the Pyrenees into Spain. The Burgundians, however, chose to remain behind, and settled in western Switzerland, Savoy, and the old French provinces called Burgundy, Dauphiny, and Franche-Comté, preferring this to accompanying the Vandals and their allies in their progress southward. In their new location the Burgundians became nominally allies and tributaries of Rome.

In Britain, the assaults of the Saxons, on the one hand, and the Picts and Scots on the other, rendered the position of the inhabitants an unpleasant one, since they were compelled to rely on the Roman army stationed in the country for the defence of the island, being unwilling, or perhaps unable, to provide for their own protection. And now the assaults of the northern tribes of Europe on the heart of the Western empire became more and more frequent, Honorius

and his ministers were compelled to call in the troops from the frontier provinces for the protection of Italy, and the position of the Britons became more critical than ever. The knowledge of the difficulties at home **407** seemed to render the troops in Britain careless of discipline, and disposed to regard the tie that bound them to Rome as being scarcely worth notice. They showed this by saluting as emperor a private soldier, Constantine by name, who assumed the government of Britain, and proceeded to make himself master of Gaul and Spain. In these countries he came into collision with the barbarian Vandals and their allies, with whom he entered into treaties. **A.D.**

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Arcadius to power in the East, and Honorius in the West .....	A.D. 395	Invasion of Lombardy by Radagaisus, who is compelled to surrender and is killed .....	A.D. 404
Invasion of Macedonia and Greece by Alaric .....	" 395	Burgundians settle in Gaul and western Switzerland .....	" 406
Invasion of Italy by Alaric .....	" 402	The Vandals pass into Spain .....	" 409
Alaric defeated by Stilicho and compelled to withdraw beyond the Po .....	" 403	Constantine, a private soldier, proclaimed emperor in Britain by the troops .....	" 407

## 5. HONORIUS (IN THE WEST).—THEODOSIUS (IN THE EAST).

Soon after, Arcadius, the emperor of the East, died in the thirty-first year of his age, and left his throne to a son, Theodosius II., who was still an infant. Notwithstanding the services and abilities of Stilicho, and the state of the empire at that time, Honorius being persuaded that his father-in-law held intelligence with Alaric, and had **408** called him into Italy, ordered him to be assassinated, repudiated his wife, Thermantias, the second daughter of Stilicho—his first wife, Maria, had not been long dead—and caused her brother Eucherius to be put to death. This was done in consequence of the enemies of Stilicho having led Honorius to believe that he was intriguing to place his son on the throne. **A.D.**

Alaric being assisted by the barbarian troops of Stilicho,

whose wives and children had been inhumanly massacred by Olympius, the favourite of Honorius and Stilicho's successor

**408** in office, laid siege to Rome, which he reduced to the most dreadful extremity. The Romans seemed

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disposed to negotiate, rather than fight, and received as emperor Attalus, the Prætorian prefect of the city, who made terms with Alaric and conferred on him the command-in-chief and title of master-general of the armies of the western empire. But Attalus presuming to quarrel with his new ally and protector, was soon deposed from his power, and Alaric then marched on Ravenna to see what terms he could extort from Honorius. In proportion, however, to the concessions that were made to him, Alaric rose in his demands. Honorius was dilatory in the payment of the money which he had promised, and the Gothic chieftain was active to enforce it. At length, the Gothic leader seized on the supplies of Rome at Ostia, and after famine had made the most dreadful ravages in Rome, Alaric marched thither once more. The

**410** slaves rose in revolt, and admitted the troops of the barbarians, and the imperial city was abandoned to

A.D.

the licentious fury of the tribes of Germany and Scythia. The pillage lasted six days, and the Goths fired the town in various places, and levelled many of the most splendid edifices with the ground. Thus fell Rome, the proud and magnificent capital of the universe, which, for eleven hundred and sixty-three years, had stretched the arms of her power from one end of the earth to another.

Alaric, who was preparing for the conquest of Sicily and Africa, died at this era of his highest glory; and Honorius, instead of profiting by this event to recover his lost provinces, concluded a treaty with his successor Adolphus, gave him in marriage his sister Galla Placidia, and, in order to secure his friendship, ceded to him a portion of Spain, of the remainder of which a great part had before been occupied by the Vandals. Constantine, the usurper of the imperial crown in Britain, had also contrived to make himself master of western Gaul, and that part of Spain which the Vandals had not occupied, but he was encountered at last by Constantius, a Roman general, and defeated and killed (411 A.D.). Adolphus entered Spain in 414 A.D., to assert his claim to the ceded territory, but was assassinated in 415 A.D. His successor, Wallia, however, succeeded in carrying out his design. The

Vandals were driven to the south of the Spanish peninsula, where they founded the kingdom of Andalusia. Honorius then ceded Aquitania to Wallia, and this on the north of the Pyrenees and the Spanish peninsula, as far as the Sierra Morena, formed the new kingdom of the Visigoths, of which Toulouse was the capital. About this time Honorius allowed to the Burgundians a just title to their conquests in Gaul, and thus the Western empire was gradually mouldering from under the dominion of its ancient masters.

The year 418 A.D. was an eventful period in the history of the Roman empire. In 410 A.D. Honorius had formally resigned all claim to Britain, but an appeal of the Britons for aid against the Picts and the Scots in 418 A.D., brought some legions to their assistance, who, after driving back the northern foe and repairing the fortifications on the frontier, withdrew virtually from the island, leaving the people entirely to their own resources. In this year also the kingdom of the Franks was established by Pharamond, in northern Gaul, and Wallia, the king of the Visigoths, died, and was succeeded by Theodoric I.

During this time Theodosius II., the emperor of the East, governed under the guardianship of his sister Pulcheria, who took the reins of empire into her hands, and, though only sixteen, evinced a great capacity for ruling. She was equally mistress of the court and the state. Theodosius, in 421 A.D., married Athenais, the daughter of the Athenian philosopher, Leontius. This princess, who was renowned for her great beauty and ability, was baptised before her marriage, and then changed her name to that of Eudoxia. In this year a war with Persia broke out, which was brought to a successful termination by Ardaburius, one of the generals of the Eastern empire, and Varanes, the Persian king, was led to agree to a truce for one hundred years. The suspension of hostilities did not last for this period, it is true, but it was observed on both sides for about a third of the period.

While the empire of the East was solely directed by women, that of the West was not less so from the ascendancy which his sister Placidia maintained over Honorius. This prince died of a dropsy, after a reign of twenty-eight years, pregnant with great events, some of which reflect immortal honour on his generals, but scarcely one of them on the emperor himself. Placidia had been given in

marriage in 417 A.D. to Constantius, who had defeated Constantine in Spain. In 421 Honorius had raised Constantius to the rank of Augustus, but he died shortly after, and his wife Placidia, in consequence of a quarrel with her brother, removed to Constantinople with her son Valentinian, then a child just two years old.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Death of Arcadius, and accession of his son, Theodosius II. ....	A.D. 408	Kingdom of the Vandals established in the south of Spain, and kingdom of the Visi- goths in north of Spain and Aquitaine .....	A.D. 415
Murder of Stilicho and his son Eucherius by order of Honorius ...	„ 408	Death of Wallia and suc- cession of Theodoric I., king of the Visi- goths .....	„ 418
Siege of Rome by Alaric. Attalus made emperor and soon after deposed ..	„ 408	Kingdom of the Franks established in Gaul by Pharamond .....	„ 418
Rome taken and sacked by the Goths under Alaric.....	„ 410	Last assistance rendered by the Romans to the Britons .....	„ 418
Death of Alaric when preparing for the in- vasion of Sicily and Africa .....	„ 410	<i>War between Persia and the Eastern empire brought to a successful termination.....</i>	„ 421
The Britons absolved from their allegiance to the Western empire ..	„ 410	Death of the Emperor Honorius .....	„ 423
Constantine, the pseudo- emperor, defeated by Constantius in Spain ..	„ 411		

6. THEODOSIUS II. (IN THE EAST)—*continued*.—VALENTINIAN III.  
(IN THE WEST).

At the death of Honorius a nominal reunion of the Eastern and Western empires was once more effected, for Theodosius II. undertook the government of both parts. The child Valentinian; in the meantime, was declared his successor in the empire. The officers of state of the Western empire were, however, indisposed to submit to this arrangement, and the throne of the West was usurped by John, chief secretary of the empire under Honorius. This man was supported by Aëtius, a very able general, who undertook to engage the Huns to act against Theodosius if he should refuse to acknowledge John as emperor of the West. How-

ever, the emperor of the East, anticipating the designs of Aëtius, sent Galla Placidia into the West with her son Valentinian, whom he invested with supreme authority at the age of six years, under the regency of his mother. To support their claims they were accompanied by an army, commanded by Ardaburius and his son Aspar. The fleet being dispersed by a dreadful tempest, the vessel which carried Ardaburius was wrecked on the coast, and he himself was taken and conducted to John at Ravenna, who gave him a friendly reception, and allowed him the full liberty of the town. This impolitic indulgence was rewarded by the prisoner sending intelligence to Aspar that the soldiers of John were not well affected to their master's cause, and desiring him to hasten with his troops to Ravenna. Accordingly Aspar, marching thither immediately, found the gates open, seized upon the usurper, and sent him to Placidia, who caused him to be beheaded.

Aëtius, being informed of this catastrophe, prudently determined to make his submission, and was again received into favour, and constituted commander of a great part of the troops of the empire. But not being of a disposition to be satisfied with divided power, he saw with jealousy the estimation in which Boniface, an officer commendable both for his virtues and abilities, was regarded at the court of Valentinian III. Though Boniface had displayed the most consummate talents in Africa, of which province he was the count, or military governor, the insidious Aëtius insinuated to Placidia everything unfavourable to the character and views of his rival, and had the address to procure his recall. Boniface, who had been privately informed by Aëtius that the empress had laid a plot for his destruction, refused to obey the imperial mandate, and was, therefore, declared an enemy to the state.

At the same time Aëtius was appointed generalissimo of all the troops of the empire, and sent against Boniface, who gave his rival a defeat, but who, distrusting his strength to cope singly with his enemies, called in the assistance of Genseric, the successor of Gunderic in the kingdom of the Vandals in Spain. It was agreed that they should divide Africa between them, and Genseric, full of this agreeable prospect, quitted Spain, accompanied with his whole community of men, women, and children. However, a re-

425  
A.D.427  
A.D.429  
A.D.

conciliation being effected between Placidia and Boniface, the latter, at Placidia's earnest solicitation, endeavoured to free Africa from the Vandals, and offered Genseric considerable sums if he would retreat. But the Vandals having taken possession of the whole country, excepting only three cities—namely, Cirta, Hippo Regius, and Carthage—treated his proposals with insult, and besieged Boniface in Hippo. There he maintained himself for upwards of a year, but at length he

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was compelled to retire to Italy, and had the mortification to know that all Africa, which he had once saved, was ravaged in the most cruel manner by the barbarians whom he had invited into that country. Boniface, in the year after his return, fell in a duel with Aëtius, who, fearing the vengeance of Placidia and the court, took refuge with the king of the Huns. After this time both empires enjoyed peace for a few years, and it was during this interval that a digest of the whole of the Roman laws was made, to which the name of the Theodosian Code was given. This code was finished, and declared to be the law of the land in the dominions of Theodosius in 438 A.D.

During the latter part of the reign of Theodosius, the European provinces of the Eastern empire, to which western Illyricum, Pannonia, and Noricum had been added shortly after the accession of Valentinian III., were incessantly attacked and distressed by different tribes of barbarians, who laboured by reiterated efforts to annihilate the feeble remains of Roman power. The Huns were a people from the interior of Asia, who, as it has been said, gradually extended their conquests westward until they effected a lodgment in the territories north of the Danube formerly occupied by the Visigoths. There they remained for some time without making any attempt to push southward, and it was not until 441 A.D. that Attila, who had succeeded to the sovereignty of the Huns seven years previously, crossed the Danube to make his first assault on the Eastern empire. Nothing could withstand the energy, activity, and determination of the chief of the Huns, and Theodosius, after a mean attempt to procure the assassination of Attila, ingloriously submitted to pay him an annual tribute. He did even more than this, for shortly before his death the leader of the Huns had compelled him to relinquish all title to the territories south of the Danube hitherto forming the whole, or, at all events, the greater part of eastern



Rhætia, Pannonia, and Mœsia. In this crisis of universal decay the Britons once more implored the Romans to defend them against the Picts and Scots, but received for answer that they were unable to render them any assistance. Theodosius II. died on July 28, 450, in the fiftieth year of his age, and the forty-third of his reign. This prince seems to have possessed a good inclination, but indolence, or inaptitude for business, rendered his inherent virtues of little avail to his people.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Theodosius II. assumes the government of the whole empire.....	A.D. 423	under Genseric and settle in Africa.....	A.D. 429
Usurpation of Western empire by John, called the Notary.....	„ 424	Establishment of the Vandal kingdom in Africa.....	„ 431
Death of John. — Valentinian III. proclaimed emperor of the West.....	„ 425	Promulgation of the Theodosian Code.....	„ 438
Revolt of Boniface in Africa.....	„ 427	First attack of Attila on the Eastern empire...	„ 441
Vandals leave Spain		Final appeal of the Britons to the Romans for aid.....	„ 446
		Death of Theodosius II.	„ 450

7. MARCIAN (IN THE EAST).—VALENTINIAN III., MAXIMUS, AND AVITUS (IN THE WEST).

By the death of Theodosius, Pulcheria remained sole mistress of the empire; but, feeling that the empire required the strong arm and determined resolution of a soldier to withstand further encroachments of the Huns, she married Marcian, a senator and soldier of Thracian origin, and invested him with the imperial purple. Attila, who has been called “the Scourge of God,” menaced the two sovereigns of the Eastern and Western empires; but Marcian declared that he would no longer consent to pay the tribute yielded by Theodosius, and Attila, who had resolved on an expedition to Gaul to assist the elder son of Clodion, the late king of the Franks, against the younger son Merovæus, founder of the Merovingian dynasty, who had laid claim to his father’s kingdom, took no steps to enforce it. The troops of Attila, and his allies the Ostrogoths and Gepidæ, entered Gaul, and, after ravaging the

whole country through which they passed, laid siege to Orleans. The siege was raised by Aëtius, the Roman governor of Gaul, who had returned from exile and made his peace at the court of Valentinian III.

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A.D.

about 441 A.D. In this he was aided by the Visigoths, under their king Theodoric, and the Franks, or a portion of them, under Merovseus; and the allies pushed on to encounter Attila, who had retreated to Champagne, as it is now called, where the extensive plains offered ample scope for the use of his cavalry. A furious encounter took place, in which more than 300,000 men are said to have perished. Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, fell in the conflict, but his death was promptly and fully avenged by his son and successor Thorismund. Attila was completely defeated, and his camp and army were only saved from total destruction by Aëtius, who counselled his allies to permit him to effect his retreat without molestation. On his way back Attila took Aquileia and entered Lombardy, but Valentinian III., who had just lost his mother Placidia, and with her his best defence, extricated himself from his difficulty, and saved Italy from the threatened invasion by the payment of a sum of money. The

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A.D.

next year Attila died through breaking a blood-vessel, and by his death the earth was delivered from a warrior who had never suffered mankind to enjoy any repose, and who had never enjoyed any himself. Aëtius received but a poor recompence for his services in Gaul in being assassinated by Valentinian III., through envy and jealousy of the fame he had acquired, in 454 A.D.; and in the following year the emperor himself was assassinated by

455

A.D.

order of a Roman patrician, Petronius Maximus, on whom Valentinian had wrought the greatest wrong that one man can well do to another, and who employed two barbarians to dispatch the tyrant. Such was the merited end of a prince who, during a reign of thirty years, was neither loved, respected, nor feared by his people.

Petronius Maximus, the instigator of Valentinian's murder, was saluted emperor, and forced the Empress Eudoxia, the daughter of Theodosius II., whom Valentinian had espoused in 437, to marry him. However, she secretly implored the king of the Vandals to rescue her from worse than captivity; and Genseric eagerly embraced this opportunity of disguising his rapacious designs, under the specious names of justice and

compassion, and, with a numerous fleet and a large army of Moors and Vandals, arrived at the mouth of the Tiber. Maximus was killed by one of his own soldiers while attempting to leave Rome, and thus was terminated a feeble and transient reign of only two months. Genseric pillaged Rome, and, after diligently collecting whatever remained of public or private wealth, conveyed it to his vessels, and returned in triumph to Carthage.

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A.D.

Marcus Mæcilius Avitus, who commanded the Roman troops in Gaul, was nominated emperor of the West by Theodoric II., king of the Visigoths, after the fall of Maximus, and was acknowledged in Italy; but Theodoric had offended Ricimer, a Suevian who commanded the Roman fleet, by his conquest of the Suevi, who had occupied that part of the Spanish peninsula which is now known as Portugal, and the Roman admiral, if we may call him so, who had defeated Genseric in a naval action in the early part of the year, returned to Rome, and declared that he would not permit Avitus to reign. The emperor, without resistance, descended from his throne, and assumed the sacred character of bishop of Placentia, but was at last sacrificed to the implacable resentment of Ricimer. Soon after the expulsion of Avitus from the throne died Marcian, the emperor of the East. During his reign his territories were untroubled by war, and nothing occurred that absolutely demands notice.

456  
A.D.

457  
A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Marcian becomes emperor of the East, and refuses to pay tribute to Attila.....	A.D. 450	III., and accession of Maximus .....	A.D. 455
Invasion of Gaul by Attila .....	„ 451	Death of Maximus, and sack of Rome by Genseric .....	„ 455
Attila totally defeated by Aëtius near Châlons .....	„ 452	Avitus proclaimed emperor of the West.....	„ 455
Death of Attila.....	„ 453	Avitus deposed by Ricimer .....	„ 456
Murder of Valentinian		Death of Marcian, emperor of the East .....	„ 457

## 8. LEO I. (IN THE EAST).—MAJORIAN AND OTHERS (IN THE WEST).

On the death of Marcian, Leo, a Thracian of humble origin, but who had risen by his abilities to a high position in the

army, was proclaimed emperor by the soldiers, and was crowned at Constantinople by the patriarch Anatholius, the first time, it is said, that a bishop of the Christian church ever performed such a ceremony.

About the same time the empire of the West was conferred by Ricimer on a soldier who had served under Aëtius, by name Majorian, whose virtues derived additional lustre from being contrasted with the qualities of his immediate predecessors. All the civil regulations of Majorian tended to the relief of the oppressed, the purity of morals, and the restoration of whatever had decayed or been destroyed in the capital. He had scarcely been placed on the throne before the Vandals, eager to renew the sack of Rome, swooped down upon Italy, but only to be driven off. Majorian now directed his attention to the recovery of Africa, and with this view he attracted by his liberality many thousands of the Gepids, the Ostrogoths, the Suevi, the Alani, and other barbarians of the remote North, who assembled in the plains of Liguria. In the midst of a severe winter the emperor conducted them over the Alps, and afterwards vanquished, and admitted to an alliance, Theodoric II., the martial king of the Spanish Visigoths. Majorian, however, was not destined to reach Africa. The

**461** Roman fleet was surprised and burnt by Genseric  
 A.D. in the harbour of Carthage, and the year after a  
 sedition, fomented by Count Ricimer, obliged Majorian to resign the sceptre; and four days after his resignation it was reported that he had died of dysentery. Probably he met his end through poison administered by Ricimer.

Ricimer now invested with the purple Libius Severus, an obscure person, whose life and reign, which lasted no longer than they were agreeable to his patron, were protracted to four years. During that period Italy was afflicted by the incessant depredations of the Vandals, who spread the terror of their arms from the Pillars of Hercules to the mouth of the Nile. In 465 A.D. the reign of Libius Severus was abruptly closed by Ricimer, who caused poison to be administered to the puppet in whose name he held the reins of government. For two years the Western empire remained without an emperor, but at last Ricimer, partly to secure an ally against the Vandals, and partly to disarm the resentment which was gathering against him in the West, besought Leo to settle the succession to the imperial throne of the West, and to take

part in an expedition against the Vandals. With the general approbation of the Romans, Leo invested Anthemius, count of the East, a patrician and proconsul, and the son-in-law of Marcian, with the purple of the West, and the daughter of Anthemius was given to Ricimer in marriage. Immediately after this preparations were made on a great scale for an attack on the Vandals in Africa, and Leo's brother-in-law Basilicus landed at Bona. The Vandals were defeated at sea and on shore, but during a truce that was foolishly granted before the siege of Carthage was commenced, the combined fleets of the Eastern and Western empires were burnt by Genseric (468 A.D.). A difference at last took place between Anthemius and the still powerful Ricimer, who resolved to subvert his throne. Having, therefore, taken Rome by assault, Ricimer renewed the crimes of Alaric and Genseric, put Anthemius to death, and proclaimed Olybrius in his stead. The latter lived only a short time, and Ricimer himself died two months after he had sacked Rome.

Leo, emperor of the East, displeased that Glycerius, the nephew of Ricimer, had caused himself to be proclaimed emperor of the West at Ravenna (673 A.D.), raised up against him a rival called Julius Nepos, who, having deposed Glycerius, was acknowledged by the Italians and provincials of Gaul. Nepos, after a brief reign of barely a year, was deposed by the barbarian troops in the pay of the Western empire, who, under the command of Orestes, advanced from Rome to Ravenna. These, when Orestes declined the purple, readily consented to acknowledge his son, Romulus Augustus, a child, as emperor of the West. The soldiers, however, demanding that a third part of Italy should be divided among them, Orestes refused to subscribe to the ruin of an innocent people, and was put to death by Odoacer, a bold barbarian, who headed the confederates, and who despoiled Augustulus of the imperial ornaments, and compelled him to signify his resignation to the senate. Odoacer did not assume the imperial diadem, but caused himself to be proclaimed king of Italy.

Thus ended the empire of the West, twelve hundred and twenty-nine years from the building of Rome, and five hundred and seven after the establishment of the Roman empire by the battle of Actium.

Britain had been long abandoned by the Romans, and was now possessed by the Saxons; Spain was in the possession of the Visigoths and the Suevi; and Africa in that of the Vandals. Gaul was divided among the Burgundians, the Visigoths, the Franks, and the Alemanni. At length Italy herself, and Rome the magnificent, which had for so many ages imposed laws on the rest of the world, submitted to a barbarian, whose family and country were unknown. The cause which ultimately produced the decline and fall of this once magnificent fabric was its greatness. The extension of its dominion weakened the vigour of its frame; the vices of the conquered nations infected the victorious legions; selfish interest supplanted patriotic affection; the martial spirit of the people was purposely debased by the emperors, who dreaded its effects on their own power; and the whole mass being thus corrupted and enervated, was easily overthrown and destroyed by the repeated assaults of the barbarians.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Leo I. in the East, and Majorian in the West ... A.D.	457	Sack of Rome by Ricimer: death of Anthemius: Olybrius made emperor of the West	A.D. 472
Theodoric II. and the Goths in Spain defeated by Majorian ...	459	Death of Olybrius and Ricimer: Glycerius emperor .....	472
Roman fleet burnt by Genseric at Carthage .....	460	Deposition of Glycerius: Julius Nepos becomes emperor .....	474
Death of Majorian: accession of Libius Severus .....	461	Deposition of Julius Nepos: Romulus Augustus emperor .....	475
Death of Libius Severus .....	465	Deposition of Romulus Augustulus: end of Western empire .....	476
Anthemius appointed emperor of the East ...	467	Odoacer, king of the Heruli, becomes king of Italy .....	476
Defeat of the Vandals: Roman fleet subsequently burnt by Genseric .....	468		

## EMPERORS FROM VALENTINIAN I. AND VALENS TO FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

WEST.	EAST.
Valentinian I. .... A.D. 364	Valens ..... A.D. 364
Gratian and Valentinian II. .... 375	Theodosius I. .... 379
Valentinian II. (alone) .. 383	

Theodosius I. sole emperor, A.D. 392.

WEST.		EAST.	
Honorius .....	A.D. 395	Arcadius .....	A.D. 395
John the Notary (nsurper) .....	„ 423	Theodosius II. ....	„ 408
Valentinian III. ....	„ 425	Marcian .....	„ 450
Maximus .....	„ 455		
Avitus .....	„ 455		
Majorianus .....	„ 457	Leo I., the Thracian ...	„ 457
Libius Severus .....	„ 461		
Interregnum .....	„ 465		
Anthemius .....	„ 467		
Olybrius .....	„ 472		
Glycerius .....	„ 473		
Julius Nepos .....	„ 474	Leo II., the younger ...	„ 474
Romulus Augustulus ...	„ 475	Zeno the Isaurian .....	„ 474

FALL OF THE WESTERN EMPIRE, A.D. 476.

## CHAPTER XI.

### THE EASTERN EMPIRE FROM LEO I. TO ITS SUBVERSION BY THE TURKS.

457 A.D. to 1453 A.D.

#### I. FROM THE ACCESSION OF LEO I. TO THE DEATH OF JUSTINIAN II.

WITH the fall of the Western empire in 476 A.D., ancient history is considered to come to a close; and there are good reasons for fixing this period as the termination of one great section of time in relation to history and the commencement of another, the chief of which is that it witnessed the extinction of a power that had long been dominant over the entire world, Parthia and Persia excepted, and the establishment of many European states and kingdoms, which, though they have passed through many changes and revolutions, and have suffered extension and diminution of territories, and frequent alterations of boundary lines, have remained in many cases till this day. Out of the fragments of the Western empire in Europe had already been constructed states in the Spanish peninsula, Gaul, soon to receive from the Franks its present name, France, and Britain, which were soon to develop into powerful monarchies; and the finishing stroke was put to the dismemberment and dissolution of the

old Roman empire by the transformation of Italy, which contained Rome, the head and fountain whence had issued and issued the power that had subdued well-nigh the whole world, into a kingdom under the sway of the barbarian chief, *Odoacer*. By this ancient history, properly so called, was clearly brought to an end, and the mediæval history of Europe fairly commenced. With the progress of many of the states that were then founded, with the fall of some of them, or their absorption into others, and with the rise of fresh states at a later date, we have nothing to do in the present volume; but it will be useful, if not almost necessary, to relate here as a fitting sequel and supplement to ancient history the story of the Eastern empire, formerly the Eastern portion of the Roman empire, which existed for nearly 1,000 years after the fall of the Western empire, lying between the new communities already in process of organisation in Europe, and the Asiatic nations, in whose territories the new-born nations of the West were subsequently destined to play so important a part. On the West in Europe the recently established nations were already entering on the paths of progress, which widened and ripened slowly and surely, until the results of the fifteenth and subsequent centuries were obtained in the achievement of personal liberty of thought and action, political freedom, maritime discovery, and scientific invention. In the East, on the contrary, things remained at a stand-still; there was no progress—that is to say, progress in a right direction—in the arts and discoveries that are alone powerful to make a state wealthy, influential, and respected. The Chinese had already stumbled, or were on the point of stumbling on discoveries, by means of which the world has been revolutionised; but they had not wit and sense enough to perceive their value, and the purposes to which they might be adapted.

The clever monkey-like imitators of the East, in plainer language, had hit on, or were about to hit on the discovery of gunpowder, printing, and the mariner's compass, but there was no master brain among them that could show them how these discoveries could be forced to lead the way to wealth and power. And between the countries in which progress was never dreamt of in the East, and those in the West, in which progress was as yet like the rill that swells and gathers as it goes, till it becomes a mighty river, lay the



Eastern empire, the inheritor of all the vices that had stained the empire of Rome and the past Western empire; prevented by this very inheritance from taking, as it might have done, the lead in the affairs of the world, and moulding the destinies of both East and West by means of just doing and the influences of Christianity, first within its own limits, and then without. Oriental in its tastes and habits, it lay supine, galvanised into an appearance of power and prosperity now and then by some ruler who was wiser, or some general who was more successful than others, who wielded the sceptre and the sword, until completely rotten at the core, it was annihilated by the Turks, who broke into and swept over Eastern Europe, as their kinsmen and predecessors, the Huns, had done before them.

Space renders it necessary that the story of the Eastern empire should be told in far fewer words than have already been devoted to ancient history proper. It can be but little more than a summary of the emperors that occupied the throne in rapid succession, the principal acts that dishonoured or distinguished their reigns, and the crimes and villainies that stained the imperial purple.

*Leo I., Leo II., Zeno, 457—491 A.D.*—It will be remembered that Leo I., surnamed the Thracian, ascended the throne of the East in 457 A.D. He was mainly instrumental in placing Anthemius on the throne of the West, and took part in the expedition against the Vandals in 468 A.D. Raised to power by the soldiers at the instigation of the patricians Aspar and Ardaburius, Leo maintained himself in opposition to those two men, and even got rid of these troublesome protectors, who soon wished to displace him because he showed a disposition to suppress the Eutychians, an heretical sect, who were protected by Aspar. A conspiracy which he had contrived against Leo's life made it necessary for the emperor to put him to death (471 A.D.), and this caused a revolt among the barbarian troops that he commanded, which was suppressed with difficulty. Leo married his daughter, Ariadne, to Zeno, who was of an illustrious Isaurian\* family, and whom he made a patrician, captain of his guards, and commander of all the troops of the East, with the expectation of the empire. But as his son-in-law was neither agreeable to the people nor the senate at Constan-

\* Isauria was a country of Asia Minor, near Mount Taurus.

tinople, on account of his ugliness and deformity, in order to prevent the imperial sceptre from quitting the hands of his family, Leo, now old and infirm, created his grandson Leo, the offspring of Zeno, his heir and successor.

Leo died of a flux at an advanced age, after a reign of seventeen years, and the empire of the East devolved on his grandson, Leo, whose death happening soon after, the father of the child, who had changed his barbarian name, Trascalisseus, for the Greek Zeno, was left sole emperor. It is stated, but without good grounds for the assertion, that Zeno procured the death of his own son to make himself emperor. His reign was troubled by numerous conspiracies. He was driven from the

throne soon after his accession by Basiliscus, the brother of the dowager-empress Verina, the widow of Leo I., but shortly after recovered it by the aid of Harmaicus, the nephew of Basiliscus, whose son he named as his successor. Harmaicus, however, now became so arrogant and anxious to render Zeno a mere puppet in his hands that the emperor, by the aid of Illus, another general whom he had won over from Basiliscus, had him seized and put to death. But Illus, no better than the others, soon abused the power he had obtained over the emperor, and being deprived of his rank and position as prime minister, fled into Asia Minor, where he excited a revolt. Zeno was unable to suppress this at once, first on account of a rising in Thrace under Theodoric Strabus, who compelled Zeno to purchase peace by payment of a large sum of money; and next, by an attempt of Marcian, the son of Anthemius, emperor of the West, to take Constantinople and secure the empire for himself. It was not until 488 A.D. that the rebellion of Illus was finally suppressed. Ariadne is said, but with what degree of truth it is impossible to determine, to have disliked her husband, and to have caused him to be hurriedly

placed in a coffin when in a fit of apoplexy, though he was not really dead. A noise was heard in the coffin, which she would not suffer to be opened; and it was discovered some days after that Zeno, in his terror and despair, had gnawed the flesh off his own arms. He died in April, 491 A.D., at the age of sixty-five, after a reign of seventeen years.

*Anastasius I.*, 491—518.—On the death of her husband,

Ariadne bestowed her hand and the imperial title on Anastasius, who had grown old in the offices of the palace, and whose virtues had been such, that, when he was proclaimed emperor in the circus, the universal acclamation was, "Reign, Anastasius, as thou hast lived!" At first, Anastasius showed great generosity, gentleness of disposition, and a desire to promote the happiness of his subjects; but he afterwards degenerated so far as to sell offices, and divide the spoils of the people with the governors of provinces. In the early part of his reign Odoacer, king of Italy, was conquered by Theodoric, king of the Visigoths, who assumed the government of the peninsula. Theodoric's claim to Italy was recognised at first by Anastasius, but a misunderstanding soon ensued, which led to aggressions on both sides. A war with Persia also occurred in his reign, in which the Persians were defeated and a truce concluded. Anastasius, who seems to have had a leaning towards heretical opinions, offended the people of Constantinople by an attempt to alter the liturgy, which led to riots which nearly lost him his crown. It was in his reign that the contest for precedence between the bishops of Rome and Constantinople commenced, the former having been recognised as superior by the council of Chalcedon in 451. In 514 A.D. Constantinople was besieged by Vitalianus, whose fleet was set on fire by the rays of the sun concentrated on the ships by means of a brazen speculum, contrived by Proclus, the mathematician. Anastasius was found dead in his chamber, 518 A.D., in the eightieth year of his age, after a reign of twenty-seven years.

*Justin I.*, 518—527 A.D.—Justin was a native of Dacia, who had enlisted as a private soldier and had gradually risen to the highest rank in the army. He had had the chief command in the war with Persia in the reign of Anastasius, in which he had been victorious, and on the death of the emperor was proclaimed his successor by the soldiers. Two years after his accession a reconciliation was brought about between the churches of Rome and Constantinople, already distinguished as the Roman and Greek churches. This prince, who had attained the age of sixty-eight when he ascended the throne, like his contemporary Theodoric, king of the Goths, was destitute even of the knowledge of the alphabet; but he was preserved from exposing his incapacity by his good sense in following the direction of

518

A.D.

abler statesmen, whom he had the wisdom to select. He relied on the diligence of the quæstor Proclus, and the talents of his nephew Justinian, whom he had drawn from the solitudes of Dacia, and educated as his future heir. Becoming incapacitated for his duties by a wound received some years before, and which could not be cured, he abdicated in favour of his nephew.

*Justinian, 527—565 A.D.*—On the death of his uncle Justin,

**527**

A.D.

Justinian, who afterwards obtained the surname of Great, ascended the throne, and governed the Eastern empire upwards of thirty-eight years. Under his government the Roman name was raised for some time from its abasement, by the merit of his generals. A war with Persia had broken out shortly before the death of Justin I., and Belisarius was appointed first to a high command in the expedition, and afterwards to the command in chief. No decisive advantage was obtained on either side, and a treaty of peace was concluded in 531 A.D. Soon after his return he set out with a numerous army and a powerful fleet, for the conquest of Africa, and having effected a landing on that coast, an engagement followed, in which Gelimer, the king of the Vandals, was defeated. Another battle succeeded, in which only fifty Romans and eight hundred Vandals were killed, and which decided the fate of Africa. The unfortunate Gelimer was led in triumph to Rome, but the emperor bestowed on him an ample estate in the province of Galatia, where he retired with his family and friends to a life of peace, of affluence, and probably of content.

**535**

A.D.

A body of forces under the conduct of Belisarius, next attacked and carried Palermo and Syracuse in Sicily. The Roman general embarked his troops at Messina, and, landing at Rhegium, advanced to Naples, which became the prey of the Romans. He then marched to Rome, which opened its gates to the lieutenant of Justinian, and which was besieged for a year by the Goths, who were repelled by Belisarius, and obliged to take shelter within the walls of Ravenna. The submission of Ravenna and other towns followed that of the capital; and Italy was wrested from its Gothic sovereign, and once more restored for a short time to the dominion of its ancient masters. A fresh Persian war broke out in 541 A.D., and was brought to a termination in the following year. It

**537**

A.D.

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**539**

A.D.

is said that Justinian meanly purchased a peace, by a cession of territory, and an enormous tribute in gold.

Belisarius, who had been recalled from Persia before the close of the war, for having spoken against the accession of the empress Theodoric, a report having reached him that the emperor was dead, on being re-appointed to the supreme command in Italy, found the Gothic monarchy, which he had overturned, in some measure restored by the valiant and virtuous Totila. Belisarius was obliged to leave Rome to the mercy of the Gothic general, who, after reserving the most precious spoils for the treasury, abandoned the city to the free pillage of the soldiers.

547

A.D.

Belisarius, however, found means to repossess himself of Rome; and Totila being repulsed in three general assaults, the fame of the barbarian sunk, as it had risen, with the fortune of his arms.

Belisarius was again recalled; and the credit of completing the conquest of Italy, by the defeat and death of Totila, was reserved for Narses the eunuch, who had long been the minister of the palace, and in whose procession Rome for the last time saw the semblance of a triumph. The capital of Italy was soon after degraded to the second rank; and the exarchs of Ravenna, as the viceroys of Italy under the emperors of the East were called, filled the throne of the Gothic kings. The declining years of Belisarius were crowned with a last victory, in which he saved the emperor and the capital from the Bulgarians, who, having passed the frozen Danube, spread terror and consternation to the very recesses of the palace. However, the hero was accused of being im-

563

A.D.

licated in a dark conspiracy against the life of his master, and after appearing before the council, his fortune was sequestered, and for several months he was guarded as a prisoner in his own palace. At length, his innocence became conspicuous, and was acknowledged; and his death, which happened about eight months after, and was probably hastened by chagrin, delivered him from the jealousy and ingratitude of the emperor. Justinian also died soon after, on November 14, 565 A.D., in the eighty-third year of his age; and though his fame is eclipsed by the superior lustre of his general, the review of the Roman jurisprudence in three compilations made during his reign, and called the *Justinian Code*, *Pandects*, or *Digests*, and *Institutes*, afford a noble monu-

ment of his desire to benefit his people by wholesome regulation of the laws devised for the internal government of the empire. The *Code*, which was a compilation of the most useful enactments of his predecessors, was produced in 529 A.D. ; the *Pandects*, or *Digests*, and the *Institutes*, an abridgement for the use of students, in 533 A.D. A revised edition of the *Code*, which became the standard of jurisprudence throughout the empire, was produced in 534 A.D.

*Justin II.*, 565—578 A.D.—Justinian was succeeded by

565

A.D.

his nephew, Justin II., the annals of whose reign are marked with disgrace abroad, and misery at home. The Longobardi, or Lombards, under Alboin, called in, it is said, by Narses, the conqueror of the Goths and the exarch of Ravenna, who had been superseded by Longinus, established themselves in Italy, and gave a permanent name to a portion of that country.

568

A.D.

The empire was afflicted by the loss of Italy, the desolation of Africa, and the conquests of the Persians. The venality of the magistrates, and the injustice of the governors, exhausted the capital and the provinces. Justin determined to seek an immediate suc-

574

A.D.

cessor, and made choice of Tiberius, the captain of the guard, who was elevated to the imperial dignity, in the presence of the patriarch and the senate, and associated with Justin in the government. Justin spent the last four years of his life in tranquillity and retirement, and died in 578 A.D., a few months after he had formally abdicated the throne in favour of Tiberius as sole emperor.

*Tiberius*, 578—582 A.D.—Tiberius was humane, just, temperate, and brave ; and his subjects contemplated with pleasure the virtues which he possessed. His first important service to his country was the defeat of the Avari, a powerful tribe who had settled to the north of the Save and the Danube, and the capture of Sirmium, now Mitrowicz, on the Save. The reverses which had happened in the reign of Justin, prior to the association of Tiberius in the government, were to some extent retrieved. Although the importance assumed by the Persian war prevented Tiberius from rescuing Italy from the Lombards, yet he succeeded in maintaining

575

A.D.

the exarchate of Ravenna and other parts under his authority, and in throwing provisions into Rome when the city was seriously threatened by them.

He also managed to set the Franks at variance with the

Lombards, and to cause intestine strife among the chiefs of the tribes of the latter people. In the same year Tiberius concluded a three years' truce with Chosroes, or Khosrew, king of Persia, in all parts where the war had been raging except Armenia. Tiberius took advantage of the contraction of the field of war and the ease with which the Armenian frontiers could be defended, to collect an enormous army, with which, in 576 A.D., he advanced against the Persians. A battle took place in Lesser Armenia, in which the Persians were totally defeated, and in the following year peace was on the point of being concluded, when the Persian king, Chosroes, broke off the negotiations, in consequence of a victory obtained by his troops over the hitherto successful Romans and their general, Justinian, who was immediately recalled by Tiberius. The Persians now, in direct violation of the truce, attacked Mesopotamia, but were compelled to retire by Justinian's successor, Mauritius, or Maurice, in a single campaign. Soon after this, Justin, who had already abdicated, died, and in the following year Chosroes died also. The war was prosecuted with vigour by his successor, Hormisdas, but he was thoroughly defeated by Maurice on the banks of the Euphrates, in 580 A.D., and again on the plain of Constantine, in 581 A.D., after which the war was brought to a termination. Some successes were gained over the Moors, or Berbers, in Africa, but these were counterbalanced by the recapture of Sirmium by the Avari in 580. Tiberius died on August 14, 582, after languishing for some time under the inroads of a mortal disease, which nothing could cure or alleviate, and just nine days after he had nominated as his successor his general, Maurice, who had just previously named his daughter Constantia.

*Maurice*, 582—602 A.D.—At the age of forty-three, Maurice, a Cappadocian by nation, ascended the throne, and reigned twenty years over the East, amidst almost continual turbulence. He was, however, endued with sense and courage to promote the happiness of his people, and in his administration followed the model of Tiberius. His reign was little better than a continuation of the wars that had been carried on in the preceding reign. The struggle with the Persians which had broken out soon after his accession, was ended by the defeat of Bahram in 591 A.D., and this was followed by wars with the Avari,

578

A.D.

582

A.D.

which were carried on with varying success until 599, when the eastern general, Commentiolis, and the greater part of his army were captured by the barbarians. Maurice refused to pay the money demanded for their ransom, and they were killed to a man. In 602 A.D. the troops stationed on the Danube revolted, and, under the command of a centurion named Phocas, who was proclaimed emperor, returned by rapid marches to the vicinity of Constantinople. The unfortunate Maurice, with his wife and nine children, escaped in a boat to Chalcedon, whither they were pursued by soldiers sent after them by Phocas, who had entered Constantinople amidst acclamations, dragged the emperor from his sanctuary, and murdered his five sons, one after the other, before his eyes. Maurice only repeated at every wound the words of the prophet David, "Thou art just, O Lord ! in all Thy judgments." He was then killed in his turn, on the dead bodies of his children, at the age of sixty-three.

*Phocas*, 602—610 A.D.—Sanguinary and inexorable, Phocas

**602** was addicted to excesses of every kind ; and his  
A.D. wife's character was little better than his own.

He considered services as crimes, and relationship as a misfortune. He sent ambassadors to Chosroes II., king of Persia, to announce his accession and the death of Maurice, and Chosroes learning how Maurice had met his death, took up arms against Phocas and invaded his dominions in the east with considerable success. At length, the capricious cruelty of Phocas knew no bounds ; and the standard of rebellion was ready to be erected in every province, when Heraclius, the governor of Africa, was prevailed on to deliver the earth from such a monster. He accordingly sent an army and fleet to Constantinople, under his son, Heraclius the younger, and his nephew Nicetas, and after the capture of the city Phocas was taken and put to death, October 4, 610.

*Heraclius*, 610—641 A.D.—Heraclius, who was acknow-

**610** ledged emperor by the clergy, the senate, and the  
A.D. people, was of a noble family, and well versed in

war, a science extremely necessary at a time when the empire was assailed on all sides. The reign of Heraclius, or at all events the greater part of it, is one of the most brilliant in the annals of the Eastern empire, and requires a fuller notice than those of many of his predecessors and successors. He began his reign with an impoverished exchequer, and with



the frontiers of the empire assailed on all sides, from the Avars on the Danube to the Persians on the Euphrates. He saw that the only policy he could adopt with advantage was that of waiting his time and opportunity with patience, and he began by making peace with Chosroes II., by ceding to him Egypt, Syria, and Armenia, and paying him a heavy annual tribute. This was followed by a peace with the Avars on more advantageous terms, and Heraclius then took advantage of the interval of breathing time he had thus gained to raise money and organise a powerful army. Peace with Persia was effected in 616 A.D., and it was not until five years later that the Persians breaking the treaty again, made preparations to advance on Constantinople through the Anti-Taurus Mountains. Heraclius immediately repaired to the plain of Josus, in Cilicia, to check their march northwards, and completely defeated the advancing hosts. In 623 A.D. he assumed the offensive, and by the aid of the tribes of the Caucasus, took Gazaca, now called Tabreez, and entered Northern Persia. In 624 A.D. he marched into Media, defeated Chosroes II. in a pitched battle, and then retired into winter quarters at the foot of the Caucasus. The year after Chosroes advanced against Heraclius in the position that he had taken up the previous winter, and sent his lieutenant Sarbar to make his way through Asia Minor to Constantinople, but the emperor, who had been put in possession of the Persian plans, left the defence of Armenia to the inhabitants and the Caucasians, and hastened southwards to meet Sarbar, whose army he almost entirely destroyed.

Chosroes, nothing daunted by his defeats and losses, pursued the same plan the year after, and sent Sarbar again against Constantinople through Asia Minor, which he reached this time without interruption, while Heraclius awaited Chosroes in the north-eastern corner of Asia Minor. The Greek fleet, however, prevented Sarbar from crossing the Bosphorus from Chalcedon, which he was besieging, and the inhabitants of the city beat off the Avari, who had been received into alliance by Chosroes. The Persian king was defeated with terrible loss by the allied Romans and Caucasians, and driven back into Persia, whither he summoned Sarbar to his assistance. Heraclius, who had led his troops into Media Atropatene, intercepted the despatch, and by a cunning alteration induced Sarbar to believe it was his

master's wish that he should remain before Chalcedon. A second despatch to Sarbar's second in command, ordering him to kill his general as a traitor, was delivered to Sarbar himself, who persuaded his soldiers and officers to lay down their arms and submit to Heraclius.

The next year Heraclius, who had wintered in Atropatene, marched southwards to Nineveh, where he defeated a numerous army under the Persian general Rhazater, who sought to stop his advance upon Ctesiphon. After this Heraclius pursued his march on Ctesiphon unimpeded, gathering spoils and treasure of every description on his way; but fearing that, owing to the scarcity which prevailed in Persia, a famine might overtake his troops, he turned from Ctesiphon when he was already within sight of it, and retreated northwards once more. Early in 628 Chosroes was killed by his son Siroes, who made peace with Heraclius, and the territories that had been taken from the Eastern empire in the previous reign were restored.

Heraclius, like many of the preceding emperors, was fond of controversy on theological subjects, and the greater part of his reign, after the conclusion of the Persian war, was passed in discussions and disputes of this nature. He supported the Monothelites, a sect whose opinions were condemned by the council convoked at Rome in 640 A.D. by Pope John IV. In 630 a new danger began to threaten the provinces of the Eastern empire in Africa and south-western Asia, for the false prophet Mahomet had made himself master of Arabia, and his fanatical followers were preparing for the conquest of the world, and had announced to Heraclius their fancied claim on his dominions. Syria, Palestine, and Mesopotamia were wrested from the emperor of the East and the king of Persia by Abu-Bekr, the successor of Mahomet, who died in 632 A.D.; and, after the death of Abu-Bekr in 634 A.D., Omar I. conquered Egypt and the Cyrenaica. But Heraclius, once so energetic and resolute, could do nothing to stay the tide of conquest that had been thus inaugurated by the Saracens, and he died of dropsy in February, 641, after a reign of little more than thirty years.

*Heraclius Constantine, Constans II.*, 641—668 A.D.—Heraclius was succeeded by his son Heraclius Constantine, who, after a reign of seven months, was poisoned by his mother-in-law Martina, that her son

Heracleonas might obtain the throne. The senate, however, sent her and her son into exile, and invested with the purple Constans II., the son of Heraclius Constantine, and grandson of Heraclius. His brother Theodosius gained the favour of the people through his just and moderate views and virtuous conduct, and the emperor, fearing lest an insurrection should be excited in his favour, caused him to be put to death. Remorse for this crime pursued the royal assassin, and induced him to fix his residence at Syracuse, where he governed in so tyrannical a manner that he perished by domestic treason, in the twenty-seventh year of his reign.

*Constantine III.*, 668—685 A.D.—Constans II. was succeeded by his son Constantine, surnamed Pogonatus, or “the bearded.” His brothers Tiberius and Hera- **668**  
clius were associated with him in the government, A.D.  
but their power was merely nominal. Towards the end of his reign Constantine grew suspicious of them, and, to prevent any rising in their favour, he caused them to be put to death. In his reign the Saracens, or followers of Mahomet, penetrated twice even to the walls of Constantinople, in 668 and 673 A.D., but were repulsed by Constantine. The siege of the city was maintained for a considerable time in 673 A.D., but the fleet of the Saracens was burnt on this occasion by the famous Greek fire, an unquenchable combustible which was invented at this time by a Syrian engineer called Callinicus, and was hurled blazing on the enemy’s ships and siege artillery from crossbows, catapults, and similar instruments. Constantine convoked the sixth general council of the Church at Constantinople in 680, under the presidency of Pope Agatho, to condemn the tenets of the Monothelites. He died in 685, after a reign of seventeen years.

*Justinian II., Leontius, Tiberius III., Justinian II. restored,* 685—711 A.D.—Justinian II., the son of Constan- **685**  
tine III., ascended the throne in the seventeenth A.D.  
year of his age. His reign, or rather the first part of it, from 685 to 695 A.D., was marked by a succession of conflicts with the Saracens. His ministers were so rapacious, and Justinian himself was so haughty and cruel, that Leontius, who had formerly commanded the troops of the East, was proclaimed emperor in his room, and Justinian, after having had his nose cut off, was exiled to the Crimea. Leontius, however, was deposed in 698 A.D. by Apsimar, one of

his generals, who assumed the name and title of Tiberius III., and who, during his reign of seven years, gained some important advantages over the Saracens. Justinian having escaped from the Crimea, and obtained the assistance of the khan of the Gazari, a tribe of Turks, whose daughter he married, and the Bulgarians, under their prince Trebelis, besieged and took Constantinople in 705 A.D., and put Leontius and Apsimar to death. During the second part of his reign the rack, the axe, and the cord were incessantly employed by this monster, who seems to have been possessed by a species of ferocious insanity.

It is said that in his flight from the Crimea, the vessel in which he sailed being in extreme danger, one of his attendants entreated him that, if ever he recovered the empire, he would forgive his enemies, but he answered coldly, "May I be drowned this instant if I forgive one of them!" He was so vindictive that he caused the inhabitants of the Crimea to be massacred for not having paid him the respect due to him when exiled among them, as well as from a suspicion which he entertained of their having had an intention of giving him up to Tiberius III. The executioners of this order having spared the women and children, the emperor sent them back, and expressly forbade them to leave one child alive. The difficulty of fulfilling this inhuman command, and the fear of being punished by the emperor for not having obeyed his orders, induced them to proclaim as emperor their general Philippicus Bardanes, who found means to procure the death of Justinian in the year 711 A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Accession of Leo I., called the Thracian ... A.D. 457	Rome, Ravenna, and other cities taken from the Goths ..... A.D. 539
Fall of the Western em- pire ..... „ 476	First appearance of the Turks in Asia Minor „ 545
Siege of Constantinople by Vitalianus..... „ 514	Totila conquered before Rome by Belisarius ... „ 547
Completion of Justinian's Code, Institutes, &c... „ 534	Italy conquered by the Lombards under Al- boin..... „ 568
Successes of Belisarius in Africa..... „ 535	Egypt, Syria, &c., con- quered by the Per- sians ..... „ 570
Belisarius enters Italy to rescue it from the Goths ..... „ 537	

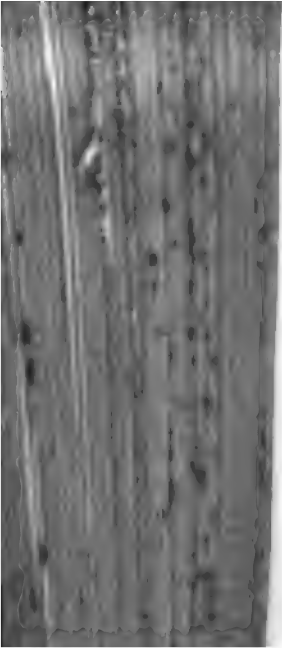
Constantinople taken from Phocas by Heraclius .....	A.D. 610	conquered by the Saracens.....	A.D. 639
Siege of Constantinople by the Persians.....	„ 626	General council held at Rome under Pope John IV. ....	„ 640
Egypt, Syria, &c., recovered from the Persians by Heraclius .....	„ 628	First siege of Constantinople by the Saracens .....	„ 668
Syria, Palestine, and Mesopotamia conquered by the Saracens.....	„ 631	Second siege of Constantinople by the Saracens.....	„ 673
Egypt and the Cyrenaica		Sixth general council held at Constantinople under Agatho .....	„ 680

EMPERORS FROM LEO I. TO JUSTINIAN II. (*restored*).

Leo I. ....	A.D. 457	Phocas .....	A.D. 602
Leo II. ....	„ 474	Heraclius .....	„ 610
Zeno the Isaurian .....	„ 474	Heraclius Constantine...	„ 641
Anastasius I.....	„ 491	Constans II. ....	„ 641
Justin I. ....	„ 518	Constantine III. ....	„ 668
Justinian I. ....	„ 527	Justinian II. ....	„ 685
Justin II. ....	„ 565	Leontius .....	„ 695
Tiberius II. ....	„ 578	Tiberius III.....	„ 698
Maurice .....	„ 582	Justinian II. ( <i>restored</i> ) .....	„ 705

## 2. FROM PHILIPPICUS BARDANES TO LEO VI.

*Philippicus Bardanes, Anastasius II., Theodosius III.,* 711—718 A.D.—Philippicus Bardanes, whom the soldiers had proclaimed emperor, and who abused the authority which he had acquired by the death of the tyrant Justinian II., was deposed two years after his accession; and the people invested with the purple Anastasius, his first secretary. Anastasius, on his election, declared himself a partisan of the Latin Church, and appointed a new exarch at Ravenna. Soon after his accession the Saracens again threatened Constantinople, and the emperor, to take off their attention, sent a fleet and army against Alexandria. On arriving at Rhodes the soldiers revolted and returned to Constantinople, where they proclaimed a tax-gatherer as Theodosius III. Anastasius retired to a convent at Thessalonica, and Theodosius III. soon resigned his power (717 A.D.) into the hands of an able Isaurian general, who became Leo III. Anastasius, by the assistance of the Bulgarians, made an effort to recover the throne in 719



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well as the spiritual domi  
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dispute concerning image  
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theism of their fathers. Many sensible Christians began to express their disapprobation of these symbols, which exposed them to obloquy, and which could not be reconciled to the genuine unperverted tenets of their holy religion; and when Leo, from the mountains of Isauria, had ascended the throne of the East, he was early inspired with a hatred to images, though for some time he bowed before them out of policy, and satisfied the Roman pontiffs of his orthodoxy and zeal by annual processions and other ceremonies, which the successors of St. Peter had sanctioned. In the reformation of religion, Leo, being provoked by resistance and invective, proscribed the existence as well as the use of religious pictures; demolished the images of Christ, the Virgin, and the Saints; and caused a smooth surface of plaster to be spread over the churches of Constantinople and the provinces. At the commencement of this great controversy, which was called the Iconoclastic, or "image breaking" controversy, as the partizans of Leo were called Iconoclasts, or "image-breakers," even the Greek patriarch and clergy remonstrated against the edict, but the Italians positively refused obedience to Leo's edict, which was condemned by the Pope, Gregory II., as heretical. A general insurrection ensued throughout Italy, which threw the northern part completely into the power of the Lombards, while the Pope assumed temporal authority in Rome. Great tumults and much bloodshed occurred at Constantinople, and the patriarch was deposed, and another, whose opinions accorded with those of Leo, was set up in his stead. On the death of Gregory II., his successor, Gregory III., assembled a general council of the church at Rome, to condemn the Iconoclasts, and Leo took away the sees of Illyricum, Calabria, and Sicily, from the Roman patriarchate, and placed them under the patriarch of Constantinople.

Whilst the emperor was almost wholly occupied with these disputes, the Saracens ravaged the eastern parts of the empire, and obtained possession of Paphlagonia. Leo, after taking proper steps to secure the diadem of his son Constantine, died in his palace at Constantinople, of dropsy, in the year 741 A.D.

*Constantine IV.,\* Leo IV., 741—780 A.D.—Constantino*

\* By some writers Constantine IV. is reckoned as Constantine V., and Constantine III. Pogonatus as Constantine IV. Heraclius-

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A.D.

731  
A.D.

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790 by the arm  
A.D. the people,  
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manner, that he died three days after in the most excruciating pain. Irene now eagerly embraced a proposal of espousing Charlemagne, the emperor of Germany and the West, in order to unite the two empires ; but the matrimonial negotiations being divulged to the inhabitants of Constantinople, they, fearing that such a marriage would occasion a removal of the seat of empire, invested with the purple the great treasurer Nicephorus, who banished Irene to the isle of Lesbos, where she died. Irene afforded protection to the advocates of images, but was an ambitious and intriguing woman, equally devoid of feeling and principle.

*Nicephorus I., Staurachius, Michael I.*, 802—813 A.D.—  
 Nicephorus united in his character the odious vices of hy-  
 pocrisy, ingratitude, and avarice. He concluded a **802**  
 treaty with Charlemagne, who was then in the A.D.  
 zenith of his power ; but he was both unskilful and  
 unfortunate in war. He refused to pay the tribute that  
 Irene had consented to give the Saracens annually, to stop  
 their incursions into the empire, and, in revenge, the caliph  
 Haroun Alraschid laid waste Asia Minor and besieged He-  
 raclea. On this Nicephorus was obliged to consent to the re-  
 newal of the tribute to obtain peace. He was slain by the  
 Bulgarians, July 25, 811 ; and his son Staurachius, who sur-  
 vived him only six months, proved that, with the kingdom,  
 he inherited the vices of his father. On his death, Michael,  
 who had married his sister Procopia, and possessed **811**  
 the esteem and affection of the court and the city, A.D.  
 was invested with the purple. His mild virtues,  
 however, were more adapted to private life, and, after reigning  
 a short time, he abdicated the throne and withdrew to a  
 monastery. His retirement was brought about by his suc-  
 cessor, Leo V., who, when a general in the service of Nice-  
 phorus, had been confined on a suspicion of treason. Michael,  
 on his accession, had restored him to liberty, but he ill-re-  
 paid his favour by causing him to lose a battle with the Bul-  
 garians, near Hadrianople, through his treachery. When  
 Michael returned to Constantinople, leaving him in command  
 of the army, he excited a rebellion against him among the  
 troops, and Michael, indisposed to attempt to retain his posi-  
 tion by force of arms, immediately resigned the crown.

*Leo V., Michael II., Theophilus*, 813—842 A.D.—Michael

was succeeded by Leo V., who had been early educated in a camp, and was fond of military parade, and who declared violently against the worship of images.

813

A.D.

He defeated the Bulgarians at Messembria in 814, and compelled them to sue for peace in the following year. The violent persecution to which he subjected all who differed from him with regard to the image question, soon excited a conspiracy against him, but the head of it, a patrician named Michael, was taken, convicted, and sentenced to death. His friends, however, murdered the emperor at prayers in the

820

A.D.

palace chapel, on Christmas Day, 820, and releasing Michael, raised him to the throne. This man, who was surnamed the Stammerer, seemed to have been delivered from a dungeon and impending death, only to

829

A.D.

display upon a throne his depraved and ignoble manners. Michael was succeeded by his son Theophilus, who was an observer of justice, a friend to his people, and perfectly disinterested, and who, being chaste and temperate in himself, was an enemy to excess and uncleanness in others.

It is related of him, that observing in the port of Constantinople a vessel which appeared richly laden, he asked to whom it belonged; and being answered to his wife, the empress Theodosia, he was extremely offended, and said, "Shall I suffer the wife of an emperor to be a trader? When princes apply to commerce, the subjects will soon perish with hunger." He then caused the vessel to be burnt; but if he had distributed the riches which it contained, it might have been more useful. He revived some excellent laws, and died after an active reign of little more than twelve years.

*Michael III.*, 842—867 A.D.—Theodora, the widow of Theophilus, was entrusted with the guardianship of the empire, and of her son, Michael III., who was then

842

A.D.

only in the fifth year of his age. Theodora was a woman of unbounded energy, and, during her regency, she put down the Iconoclasts and restored the images in all the churches throughout the empire. In 850 A.D. she conquered Bogoris, the king of the Bulgarians, and compelled him to become a vassal of the empire. Michael, after he arrived at manhood, and was emancipated from all control, gave

himself up to unbounded licentiousness, and studiously imitated the ignoble pursuits of Nero, and the scandalous excesses of Heliogabalus. In 857 A.D. he deprived his mother of participation in the government, and compelled her to retire to a convent. This was done by the advice of his profligate uncle, Bardas, who carried on the government in his name in 866. Bardas was assassinated by Michael's orders by Basil, whom Michael had raised from the lowest station to the dignity of Cæsar, and appointed his colleague. Michael himself was also destined to die by the hand of the man whom he had thus favoured, for in 867 Basil entered the royal chamber where Michael lay in a stupor, induced by intoxication, and slew him in the thirtieth year of his age.

*Basil I.*, 867—886 A.D.—The new emperor was a Macedonian of poor and humble parentage. He had gained Michael's favour by conquering a bulky Bulgarian, of great stature, in single combat. He killed Michael to save his own life, which had been threatened, in consequence of his having remonstrated with his patron for the cruelty and debauchery in which he habitually indulged. Basil governed with great justice and moderation, and rewarded men of merit; and he was so much beloved by his people, that they considered him rather as their father than their sovereign. He raised men of merit only, and allowed all his subjects to address him with freedom. He re-established order in his dominions, corrected all abuses, and caused a code of laws to be compiled which are known as the "Basilica." He convoked a general council at Constantinople in 869, which was attended by Pope Adrian, and at which a temporary reconciliation between the Greek and Latin churches was brought about. In alliance with the Emperor Lewis II., Basil fought against the Saracens in Apulia, but recalled his troops in consequence of a misunderstanding with his brother emperor. He defeated the Saracens in Asia Minor, and advanced beyond the Euphrates in 872. He sent a bishop to the Russians, soon after, from which time the Russians have steadily adhered to the forms of the Greek Church. In 880 Syracuse was taken by the Saracens, after a siege of many months' duration. This good prince had nearly deprived his son of sight, who was falsely accused of an intention to assassinate him. Everyone was convinced of the innocence of Leo, whom the emperor was continually importuned to

vernment, comprised  
of which form the f  
Romans in Christ, t  
expired of wounds r  
hunting, amidst the  
nineteenth year of h  
his age.

*Leo VI.*, 886—911

886 son, Leo V.  
A.D. posed seven  
science, incl

tion of "Oracles or  
"Basilica," or code of  
taking a fourth wife, t  
Greek church, in whi  
this, was forbidden.  
this alliance ; and the  
in the dispute ; but a  
and Leo retained his  
named Constantine. I  
carried on war with  
generals, who were son  
feated. His own atten  
government of the inte  
salonica, plundered it, a  
He died in 911, in the f

Monasteries suppressed by Constantine IV....	A.D. 770	General Council at Con- stantinople : Recon- ciliation between the Latin and Greek Churches .....	A.D. 869
Constantine V. blinded by order of his mother, Irene .....	792	Successes of the Empe- ror Basil I. against the Saracens .....	872
Nicephorus I. defeated and killed by the Bul- garians .....	811	Syracuse taken by the Saracens .....	880
The Serbs take posses- sion of Dalmatia .....	825	Capture and sack of Thessalonica by the Saracens .....	904
Bogoris, king of Bul- garia, becomes a vas- sal of the empire.....	850		

## EMPERORS FROM PHILIPPIOUS BARDANES TO LEO VI.

Philippicus Bardanes...	A.D. 711	Irene alone .....	A.D. 797
Anastasius II. ....	713	Nicephorus I. ....	802
Theodosius III. ....	716	Staurachius .....	811
Leo III.....	717	Michael I.....	811
Constantine IV. ....	741	Leo V. ....	813
Leo IV.....	775	Michael II. ....	820
Constantine V. and Irene .....	780	Theophilus .....	829
Constantine V. alone...	790	Michael III.....	842
Constantine V. and Irene .....	792	Basil I. ....	867
		Leo VI.....	886

## 3. FROM ALEXANDER AND CONSTANTINE VI. TO MICHAEL VI.

*Alexander and Constantine VI., etc., 911—959 A.D.*—Alexander died the year after his accession to power (912 A.D.), and on his death Constantine VI., surnamed Porphyrogenitus, from the apartment in which he was born being lined with porphyry, or purple, was placed under the guardianship of his mother Zoe. The Bulgarians, who were perpetual enemies of the Greeks, made irruptions, which obliged Zoe to raise troops against them, the command of which she gave to two generals, Romanus and Leo. As soon as these men were at the head of the army they formed the design, of which the execution appeared easy against such a child, either of seizing on the empire for themselves, or dividing it with Constantine. But these ambitious pretenders disagreeing between themselves, the faction of Romanus gained the ascendancy. He deprived his rival of sight, and marrying his daughter, Helena, to Constantine, induced him to name his son, Christopher, head of

the allies, who were at that time the great support of the empire. He himself assumed the title of *Cæsar*, and afterwards that of emperor, and associated his son,

919

A.D.

Christopher, with himself and *Constantine VI.* in the empire; then banishing the empress *Zoe*, he took the whole authority into his hands, and made peace with the *Bulgarians*. The young emperor seemed to take no part in these events, but formed his own designs, which were to suffer his enemies to ruin each other. At length, however, *Romanus* having asso-

928

A.D.

ciated his son, *Stephen*, and *Constantine VII.* with him in the empire, the legitimate emperor, *Constantine*, persuaded these young men to conspire against their father, whom they seized and placed in a convent in 945 A.D., where he died three years after. No sooner was this done than they themselves were sent into exile, and *Constantine* became sole emperor, *Christopher* having died in 931. The crime which *Constantine* had incited *Stephen* and his brother to commit against their father was attempted in another way against himself by his son *Romanus*, who instigated his wife, *Theophania*, to poison him. The emperor, at the moment of raising the cup to his lips, by a slip of his foot spilt a part of the draught, yet still drank sufficient to deprive him of life.

*Romanus II.*, *Nicephorus II.*, 959—969 A.D.—After a reign

959

A.D.

of forty-eight years, *Constantine VI.* was succeeded by his son, *Romanus*, the poisoner, who was one of the most debauched sovereigns mentioned in history, and who was poisoned in his turn, after a brief reign of four years, by his wife, *Theophania*.

*Romanus* left two sons, *Basil* and *Constantine*; and *Theo-*

963

A.D.

*phania*, conscious of the necessity of a protector, threw herself into the arms of *Nicephorus II.*, called *Phocas*, who united, in the popular opinion, the double merit of a hero and a saint, and who assumed the title of *Augustus* with the pre-eminence of power. He attacked the *Saracens* in *Asia Minor*, and drove them out of *Cilicia* and part of *Syria*. Becoming unpopular on account of his avarice, *Nicephorus* was put to death with the consent of *Theophania*, who opened his chamber-door to *John Zimisces*, a general of the empire, and the other conspirators, who massacred the emperor without opposition.

*John Zimisces*, *Basil II.*, and *Constantine VIII.*, 969—

1028 A.D.—Zimisceles admitted Basil and Constantine, the two sons of Romanus, as his partners in the empire. He signalled himself on the Danube and the Tigris, and, by his double triumph over the Russians and the Saracens, deserved the title of conqueror of the East and saviour of the empire. It is supposed that he was poisoned by his chamberlain while preparing for the siege of Damascus in 976 A.D., and after nominating Basil and Constantine as his successors, died universally lamented.

It is unknown whether the assassin and poisoner, Theophania, had any share in his death; but it is certain that she partook in the benefits arising from it. Zimisceles had been compelled by the patriarch of Constantinople to separate from her and to send her into exile; but after his death the eunuch, Basi, recalled her, in order to reign with her in the names of the two princes, the eldest of whom was nineteen, and the youngest seventeen years of age. Bardas Selerus, an able general, who had been employed by Zimisceles, usurped the sovereign authority, twice defeated the imperial army, took Nice, and beat Bardas Phocas, the nephew of Nicephorus. Phocas, however, obliged Selerus to fly to Babylon, where he was imprisoned by the Sultan. The former being freed from Selerus, himself assumed the purple; and the latter having obtained his liberty, entered into an agreement with Phocas. They divided the empire between them, that they might more effectually defend it against Basil and Constantine, who, notwithstanding their youth, had taken arms and pursued the usurpers. The two generals soon disagreed; and Phocas, after imprisoning Selerus, himself fell in battle against the two emperors. In consequence of the defeat of his colleague, Selerus shook off his fetters, and remained some time in rebellion, till at length he submitted, and was favourably treated.

Constantine indulged in the pleasures of youth, and rejected the cares of government; but the elder brother soon felt the impulse of genius, and displayed his valour in frequent expeditions against the Saracens, the Sclavonians, the emperor, Otho III., of Germany, the Lombards, and by the final destruction of the kingdom of Bulgaria.

The war with Bulgaria began in 981 A.D., and was not concluded until 1014 A.D. The termination of the strife, which was closed by the battle of Zetunium, in which Basil

was victorious, was signalised by a frightful act of cruelty, for Basil divided 15,000 prisoners whom he had taken into 150 companies of 100 men each, and then deprived them of their sight, with the exception of one man in each company, who was permitted to retain his eyesight to lead the rest home. Bulgaria was finally made a province of the empire in 1019 A.D. Vladimir, grand-duke of Russia, married the emperor's sister in 988, and abolished paganism throughout his dominions, after being baptised himself. Basil II died in 1025 A.D., and after his death Constantine employed his power and time in overthrowing the plans of his brother, whose ministers he displaced, and substituted in their room the companions of his own excesses. In the eleventh century the relics of Italy were swept away by the Normans, and almost all the Asiatic branches were dissevered from the Roman trunk by the Turks. Still, however, the Eastern empire, with all its losses, equalled the largest of the modern European kingdoms.

*Romanus III., Michael IV., Michael V., Constantine IX.*, 1028—1054 A.D.—On the death of Constantine VIII., the sceptre of the East devolved on Romanus III., surnamed

**1028** Argyropulus, who had married Zoe, the late emperor's daughter. His conduct in the early part of

A.D. his reign showed him to be a prince of piety and moral goodness; but after a time his sternness and avarice rendered him unpopular. His empress, Zoe, who was a woman of the most profligate character, having taken a fancy to Michael, a handsome but low-born Paphlagonian, caused Romanus to be put to death, and married him in 1034. John the eunuch, and brother of Michael, seized on the entire authority, and, upon the death of the latter, elevated to the

**1041** throne his nephew, Michael Calaphates, who was so named from his father's occupation in careening vessels, and who banished both Zoe and his uncle.

Zoe, however, was restored to the throne by the people, and, after causing Michael V. to be deprived of sight, associated with her in the empire her sister, Theodora, who had led a religious life. Her subjects also requiring her to give them an emperor, among the many pretenders who arose she preferred Constantine X., surnamed Monomachus, a man of an illustrious birth and agreeable person, a qualification by no means indifferent in the eyes of the empress, who espoused



him. Monomachus governed with wisdom and prudence, and as fortunately as the incursions of the barbarians, who continually harassed the empire, would allow him. It is uncertain what share he gave Theodora in the government, and all that is known is that he always treated her with attention and respect. Ze died in 1050 A.D. ; but Constantine, though he found himself in declining health, refused to nominate his sister-in-law, Theodora, for his successor. As soon as she was informed of this she quitted her convent, and caused herself to be declared empress. This bold action, it is said, caused such a shock to Monomachus, that he fainted on hearing of it, and died in the thirteenth year of his reign, in the year 1054 A.D.

*Theodora, Michael VI. Stratiotes*, 1054—1057 A.D.—Theodora reigned with honour and dignity for about two years, and, by the advice of her counsellors, left the sceptre to Michael VI., surnamed Stratiotes, a decrepid veteran, whose feeble government and imprudent conduct so disgusted the army, that they elevated to the throne Isaac Comnenus, and his power was afterwards confirmed by the sanction of the senate. 1056  
A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Five emperors on the throne at Constantinople .....	A.D. 928	vince of the Eastern empire .....	A.D. 1018
Bulgarians defeated in the battle of Zetunium .....	„ 1014	Great famine throughout the empire .....	„ 1035
Bulgaria made a province of the Eastern empire .....		Sicily re-annexed to the empire, and Servia lost .....	„ 1040

EMPERORS FROM ALEXANDER AND CONSTANTINE VI. TO  
MICHAEL VI.

Alexander and Constantine VI. ....	A.D. 911	Nicephorus II. ....	A.D. 963
Constantine VI. alone ..	„ 912	John I. Zimisces .....	„ 969
Romanus I. (deposed 945) .....	„ 919	Basil II. and Constantine VIII. ....	„ 976
Christopher (died 931) ..	„ 920	Constantine VIII. alone ..	„ 1025
Stephen } Ex. ....	„ 928	Romanus III. ....	„ 1028
Constantine VII. } 945 ..	„ 945	Michael IV. ....	„ 1034
Constantine VI. again alone .....	„ 945	Michael V. ....	„ 1041
Romanus II. ....	„ 959	Constantine IX. ....	„ 1042
		Theodora .....	„ 1054
		Michael VI. ....	„ 1056

## 4. THE COMNENI : FROM ISAAC I. TO ALEXIUS V.

*Isaac I., Constantine X., Eudocia, and Romanus IV.* 1057—

**1057** 1071 A.D.—In order to replenish the exhausted  
A.D. coffers of the state, Isaac impoverished the clergy and  
loaded the people with heavy taxes, which excited

loud murmurs. He abdicated in 1059, after nominating as his successor Constantine Ducas, a friend of the Comnenian house, and retired to a monastery, where he spent the short remainder of his days. Constantine X., surnamed

**1059** Ducas, suffered the taxes to remain a cause of dis-  
A.D. content and complaint, and by donations endeavoured to buy off the hostility of the Turks, who had now

become truly formidable. He died in 1067, leaving the empire to his three sons, Michael, Andronicus, and Constantine, and appointed their mother, the empress Eudocia, regent during their minority, after having obliged her to swear she would never marry again.

On some disasters being experienced from the Turks, the discontented and ambitious public declared that the present state of the empire required at its head a courageous man, and not a weak and timid woman. Among these declaimers against the government was Romanus Diogenes, a man of a good person and an illustrious birth, who accompanied his words by actions, which caused him to be accused of aspiring to the throne. Being brought before Eudocia to receive sentence of death, the princess was moved with compassion at the sight of a man who appeared in her eyes too amiable to be criminal; and, after granting him his pardon, she placed him at the head of her army, and formed the design of marrying him. In her heart she had already dispensed with her oath; and, in order to prevent the people from opposing her inclinations, she resolved to procure the same indulgence from the patriarch, John Xiphilin. For this purpose she pretended to be enamoured of Bardas, the nephew of the patriarch, and offered to marry him and divide the empire with him, if the pontiff would annul the oath which she had taken, and persuade the senate that she might marry. The patriarch, who was dazzled with the expectation of seeing his nephew in so exalted a situation, by his representations of the mournful state of the empire, and by declaiming against the rash oath extorted by the jealousy of the deceased emperor, obtained the consent of the senate. He then publicly re-

stored to Eudocia the written oath of which he had been the depository, and exhorted her to espouse some man who might be capable of protecting her and her children.

Eudocia, however, contrary to the expectation of the patriarch, married in 1068 Romanus Diogenes, who assumed the title of Romanus IV. As soon as he had ascended the throne he marched against the Turks, who had overrun Asia Minor, and drove them back across the Euphrates. In Armenia, however, he was defeated and taken prisoner by Alp Arslan, the sultan of the Turks, and only obtained his liberty by payment of a heavy ransom. While he was yet absent, the sons of Constantine Ducas rose in revolt against their mother Eudocia, and confined her in a convent. They also caused Romanus to be taken prisoner on his way home, and, having deprived him of sight, they threw him into prison, where he soon died in 1071 A.D.

*Michael VII. and Constantine XI., Nicephorus III., 1071—1081 A.D.* The sons of Constantine X. seem to have been utterly unequal to the task they had assumed. Of Constantine XI. little or nothing is related in history, and Michael, the eldest, surnamed Parapinaces, was so indolent that the whole power was vested in the hands of his uncle John. Two generals denominated Nicephorus, but distinguished by the surnames of Bryennius and Botaniates, raised the standard of rebellion in 1078, and assumed the purple, the one at Adrianople, the other at Nice. The feeble emperor, preferring the resignation of the crown to the fatigues of defending it, was rewarded with a monastic habit and the title of archbishop of Ephesus. Bryennius was soon after defeated by Botaniates, who assumed the title of Nicephorus III. 1071  
A.D.

After the lapse of a few months an insurrection was excited against Nicephorus III. by Basilias, but the revolt was put down, and the pretender taken prisoner by some troops under the command of Alexius Comnenus, nephew of the Emperor Isaac Comnenus. Alexius, after the victory, was proclaimed emperor by the soldiers under his command, and readily accepted the position which was thus thrust on him. However, Nicephorus was not without resources; but he preferred submitting to the advice of the patriarch Cosmas, who was revered for his piety, and who exhorted him to give way to the decrees of Providence, and rather yield up the empire than suffer the capital to be stained with Christian blood. He was not long

solicited before he went to the principal church, where he deposited his imperial vestments; and retiring from thence to a cloister, he assumed those of a monk, after a reign of two years and ten months.

*Alexius I. Comnenus*, 1081—1118 A.D.—*Alexius Comnenus*

1081

A.D.

was an eminent member of a family that had migrated from Italy and settled in Asia Minor. The policy and course of action that he adopted during his reign retarded, as much as possible, the dismemberment of the empire. His actions evinced that he was equally prudent as a governor, profound as a politician, and great as a warrior. Notwithstanding the readiness of Nicephorus III. to resign the crown, the troops of Alexius had committed disorders in Constantinople, which had highly offended both the clergy and the people. Touched with remorse, Alexius appeared before the patriarch in a penitentiary habit; and having acknowledged himself guilty, he demanded that a penance, proportionable to the enormity of the crime, should be inflicted on him. The patriarch enjoined him, and the companions of his irregularities, to fast, lie on the ground, and practise many austerities, during forty days. The penance was exactly fulfilled, particularly by the emperor. But, after having shown this respect to religion, he thought it no crime to appropriate the property of the church when he wanted it, a liberty which was not suffered without resistance, and which ended in exciting commotion.

The prince was under the necessity of waging war, not only with the Turks, the Saracens, the Normans of Apulia and Sicily, who attacked the provinces of the empire on

1081

A.D.

the Adriatic Sea, and other natural enemies of the state, but also against the nations of the West, which attacked the East with all their force by means of the crusades, the first irruption of which Alexius had to sustain. He has been accused of duplicity with respect to the crusaders. It ought, however, to be remembered that they did not come to his assistance against the Turks and Saracens, although there is no doubt that he had sought their aid against the professors of Mahometanism, but were impelled by a degree of religious insanity which a prudent prince could not approve. Besides, it is well known that the greatest part of them quitted their native homes less from a zeal for religion than a desire for conquest, and that they were extremely disposed to invade  
country near which they came. The first crusade against

the infidels who had occupied Syria and Palestine, now commonly called the Holy Land, was excited by the preaching of Peter the Hermit; and this monk, having obtained the sanction of the reigning pope, Urban II., and the support of the Christian princes of the West, to his scheme, led a vast host, undisciplined and, to a great extent, unarmed, to the East by way of Constantinople. The great number of the rabble, for they were little better, under his command plundered the countries through which they passed, and, like locusts, devoured the living of the people and peasantry. Alexius furnished them with the means of passage across the Bosphorus, and those who had escaped death on the way fell an easy prey to the warlike Turks in the plain of Nice. The year after a well-armed, disciplined army of Franks, Normans, and others, under the command of Godfrey de Bouillon, marching eastward by the same route, encamped before Constantinople. Alexius supplied the new-comers with provisions, and did all he could to conciliate them, and save his city from being attacked by the crusaders. He was successful, and, having taken them over the Bosphorus in his ships, he marched with them to Nice, which was taken from the Turks and retained by Alexius. In the same manner Alexius recovered the whole of Asia Minor and the neighbouring islands from the Turks, but he lent no aid to the crusaders in the recovery of Jerusalem, of which Godfrey de Bouillon was proclaimed king in 1099. Alexius died in 1118 A.D., after a reign of thirty-seven years, during which, by his wise administration, he temporarily infused new life into the declining empire, and extended its limits in Europe and Asia. He enforced order and discipline, promoted commerce and learning, and, being of a mild and liberal disposition, he never punished beyond exile and the confiscation of property the excitors of any conspiracy against him.

*John II. Comnenus*, 1118—1143 A.D.—On the death of Alexius, John, his elder son, succeeded to the throne, and happily united the claims of primogeniture and of merit. Feared by the nobles, and beloved by the people, this prince abolished the punishment of death in all judicial proceedings, and by his virtues seemed to revive the character of Marcus Antoninus. He repelled the invasions of the Turks, Scythians, Servians, and Huns, and made himself master of Armenia. As he was hunting the wild boar, a poi-

1095

A.D.

1096

A.D.

1118

A.D.

soned arrow from his quiver wounded his hand, and proved fatal to the best and greatest of the Comnenian princes. Isaac, the younger son of Alexius, it may be said, abjured Christianity for Mahometanism, married the daughter of the Turkish sultan, and had two sons, John and Andronicus, the latter of whom usurped the throne of the East at a later period, as will be seen.

*Manuel I. Comnenus*, 1143—1180 A.D.—John before his death appointed his youngest son Manuel as his successor. This prince was twenty-three years of age when he ascended the throne, and he was frequently engaged in war during his long reign of thirty-seven years. He was scarcely seated on the throne before he was called on to repel the aggressions of the sultan of Iconium, whom he defeated in several engagements; and in 1144 A.D. he was engaged in a conflict with Raymond of Antioch, one of the new potentates who had sprung into existence after the suc-

**1146** cessful termination of the first crusade. Soon after  
A.D. this the second crusade was preached in Europe by St. Bernard, and in 1147 A.D. an army of French and Germans, under Louis VII. of France and Conrad, emperor of Germany, passed through Constantinople on their way to the East. Manuel is accused by contemporary writers of having adopted the same deceitful course towards the soldiers of the second crusade that his grandfather is alleged to have followed towards those of the first; but it appears that he was guilty of no greater offence than that of not rendering them active assistance with men and money after their failure to take Damascus and Ascalon. After carrying on wars at various times with Roger II. of Sicily, and suppressing revolts of the Servians and Hungarians, he fitted out an expedition

**1175** against Egypt in 1168, which proved unsuccessful.  
A.D. Seven years later he was again involved in war with the Turks, in which neither party gained any decisive advantage. As the genius of Manuel was remarkably active, when he was not engaged in war he entered into religious disputes, and was the inventor of some heresies. Before his death, which happened in 1180 A.D., he assumed the monastic habit, which he considered as expiatory of the profligacy in which he had lived.

*Alexius II. Comnenus*, *Andronicus I. Comnenus*, 1180—1185 A.D.—Manuel left the crown to his son Alexius II., who

was only twelve years of age, and consequently possessed neither vigour nor wisdom. This unfortunate youth was strangled in 1183 A.D. by order of Andronicus, who usurped the throne. Andronicus, as it has been shown above, was first cousin to Manuel; he destroyed without distinction all whom he believed attached to the family of Alexius, or capable of avenging his murder. Indeed, scarcely a day passed which was not sullied by some cruel execution, and in a short time the flower of the nobility were exterminated. The tyrant was a hypocrite deliberately cruel, who, after assisting and participating with apparent devotion in the mysteries of religion, gave orders for torture and assassination the moment he turned from the altar; and yet the inhuman monster complained of the necessity which prevented him from pardoning all men of merit. The people grew tired of the bloody spectacle, and the danger of Isaac Angelus Comnenus, a person of high distinction, whom Andronicus intended to assassinate, excited the compassion of the multitude, who gathered together in a church where he had taken refuge, and proclaimed him emperor. Andronicus endeavoured to save himself by sea, but the winds driving him back, he was taken and led to Isaac, who abandoned him to the populace, from whom he endured the cruellest torments for three days. But notwithstanding all his hypocrisy, he still preserved some sentiments of religion, which proved of service to him on this trying occasion. He bore their tortures with admirable courage, and frequently repeated, "Lord, have mercy on me!" He showed no impatience, and used no reproaches, but uttered without bitterness these words, "Why do you bruise a broken reed?" Andronicus was seventy-three years old when he seized the throne, from which he was driven in 1185 A.D., suffering death in September in that year.

*Isaac II. Angelus Comnenus, Alexius III., Isaac II. restored, and Alexius IV.*, 1185—1204 A.D.—Isaac Angelus Comnenus, a descendant in the female line from the great Alexius, being raised to the throne, gained the affections of the people by his gentleness and moderation. Three years after his accession the third crusade was undertaken. The indolence of Isaac became almost as intolerable to his subjects as the active vices of his predecessors. His disastrous and unpopular reign furnished a pretext to his ungrateful brother Alexius, known as

1180  
A.D.1185  
A.D.1188  
A.D.

Alexius III., to usurp the throne in 1195. Isaac was deprived of sight, and shut up in a lonesome tower; whilst his son

**1203**

A.D.

Alexius, having made his escape, requested and obtained the assistance of the crusaders, who re-established Isaac, in conjunction with his son Alexius IV., on the throne. Alexius III., who had reigned eight years, had his eyes thrust out, and retired to a monastery, where he died. The blind Emperor Isaac and his son were soon deposed and put to death by Alexius Ducas, who was surnamed Murtzulphus, from the thickness of his eyebrows, and who was immediately proclaimed emperor, and assumed the title of Alexius V.

The murder of Isaac II. and his son highly enraged the French, Venetians, and other crusaders, who made a general assault upon the city, and whose valour surmounting every obstacle of nature and art, the banners of the Latins, after a long and bloody contest, were seen floating upon the

**1204**

A.D.

walls of Constantinople, and the Greeks threw down their arms and surrendered. The conquerors spared their lives. They allowed one day for pillage, without bloodshed or violence, on condition that the whole booty should be brought to a common stock, to be afterwards divided according to rank and merit. However, the shares proved inconsiderable, as the night had afforded time for the removal or concealment of many things; and the soldiers, notwithstanding the orders which they had received to the contrary, had secured individually many valuable effects. Without reckoning the pictures and statues, the general booty amounted to an incredible sum. Murtzulphus escaped in a small vessel with Euphrosyne, widow of the usurper Alexius III., and her daughter Eudoxia, for whom he had abandoned his lawful wife, an alliance by which he no doubt reckoned on securing a right to the empire, from the pretensions of his father-in-law, who had taken refuge in a monastery at the foot of Mount Hæmus. This great revolution took place 874 years after the seat of empire had been transferred from Rome to Constantinople.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

- |  |   |
|--|---|
| • First crusade in the<br>time of Alexius I. ... A.D. 1096 | Third crusade in the<br>time of Isaac II. ... A.D. 1183 |
| Second crusade in the<br>time of Manuel I. ... .. 1147     |   |
|  | Capture of Constanti-<br>nople by the crusaders .. 1204 |



## EMPERORS FROM ISAAC I. TO ALEXIUS V.

Isaac I. Comnenus.....	A.D. 1057	Alexius II. Comnenus	A.D. 1180
Constantine X. Ducas	„ 1059	Andronicus I. Comnenus	„ 1183
Eudocia and Romanus IV. ....	„ 1067	Isaac II. Angelus Comnenus	„ 1185
Michael VII. and Constantine XI. ....	„ 1071	Alexius III. Angelus...	„ 1195
Nicephorus III. ....	„ 1078	Isaac II. (restored) ...	„ 1203
Alexius I. Comnenus...	„ 1081	Alexius IV. Angelus...	„ 1203
John II. Comnenus ...	„ 1118	Alexius V. Ducas .....	„ 1204
Manuel I. Comnenus...	„ 1143		

## 5. THE LATIN EMPERORS: FROM BALDWIN I. TO BALDWIN II.

The Latin empire of Constantinople, which lasted about sixty years, is to be considered as limited to that city, and circumscribed within a greater or less extent, according to the successes of the Greeks, Turks, and Bulgarians, and even the Latins, who attacked it on all sides. Baldwin, count of Flanders and Hainault, was solemnly proclaimed emperor. Thessaly was erected into a kingdom, under the Marquis of Montserrat. The Venetians extended their settlements along the east from Ragusa to the Hellespont, and obtained the islands of the Archipelago. Theodore Lascaris, a young Greek prince who had married a princess of the family of the Comneni, having taken possession of the whole country from the Mæander to the Euxine, assumed the title of emperor, and fixed his residence at Nice. Alexius, the lineal heir of the Comneni, who had been created duke of Trebizond, extended his dominions from Sinope to the Phasis. These arrangements subverted entirely the ancient fabric of the constitution. Baldwin I. was taken prisoner just two years after his accession, by the king of Bulgaria, who put him to a most cruel death. He was succeeded by his brother Henry I., who compelled Theodore Lascaris to acknowledge him as emperor, and who, after repeated victories, concluded an honourable peace with the king of Bulgaria, and with the Greek princes of Nice and Epirus. He died after a reign of eleven years, not without the suspicion of being poisoned.

1206  
A.D.

The barons of France now raised to the throne Peter de Courtenay, cousin to the French king, and brother-in-law of the late emperor, who was assassinated by order of Theodore, prince of Epirus. He was suc-

1217  
A.D.

ceeded by his younger son, Robert, in whose reign the French were pressed on all sides by the Greeks of Nice and Epirus. His successor Baldwin de Courtenay, who was Robert's brother, succeeded him in 1228, under the guardianship of John de Brienne, who was associated with Baldwin in the empire. John de Brienne died in 1237: Baldwin reigned many years, but at length, Michael Palæologus, who had been raised to the crown of Nice from being leader of the Nicean troops, took the capital by surprise, and the Greeks again became masters of Constantinople, after it had been in the possession of the Latins sixty years.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Establishment of Latin emperors at Constantinople, and accession of Baldwin I. ....	A.D. 1204	Subversion of the Latin emperors and re-establishment of Greek princes .....	A.D. 1261
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#### LATIN EMPERORS FROM BALDWIN I. TO BALDWIN II.

Baldwin I. ....	A.D. 1204	Baldwin II. de Courtenay, associated on the throne with John de Brienne .....	A.D. 1228
Henry I. ....	„ 1206		
Peter de Courtenay ...	„ 1216		
Robert de Courtenay...	„ 1221		

#### G. GREEK EMPERORS FROM MICHAEL VIII. PALÆOLOGUS, TO CONSTANTINE XII. PALÆOLOGUS.

*Michael VIII. Palæologus*, 1261—1282 A.D.—Michael, on the recovery of Constantinople, turned his attention principally to commerce, which he wished to see flourish in his capital, where the Genoese, Venetians, and Pisans were very powerful. To establish an agreement among his subjects, he attempted a re-union of the Greek and Latin churches; but the patriarch and clergy of Constantinople were displeased that he acknowledged the supremacy of the pope. Michael, angry at their resistance, punished his opponents with deposition and exile; but the vexation caused by those commotions brought on a sickness, which terminated his life at the age of forty-five years.

*Andronicus II. Palæologus*, 1282—1332 A.D.—Michael was

succeeded by his son, the *pious* Andronicus, surnamed the Elder, who denied his father the burial of a prince and a Christian, and who conciliated the clergy by annulling the union of the Greek and Latin churches. However, the valour and learning for which this emperor is celebrated, contributed little to the prosperity or glory of his long and uninteresting reign. In 1303 he summoned to Constantinople a band of adventurers from Spain and other countries, to assist him against the Turks, but his allies plundered the country, and did as much injury as the Turks themselves could have done, and he was compelled to give them a large sum of money to induce them to leave the country. The abject slave of superstition, Andronicus rendered the people discontented and mutinous. His grandson, who was called Andronicus the younger, erected the standard of rebellion in 1320, and a long and bloody civil war ensued, which was only terminated by the association of Andronicus III. with his grandfather in the empire in 1325. Three years after Andronicus III. obliged the old emperor to retire to a cloister, in which he wore the monastic habit, and expired four years after the abdication, in the seventy-fourth year of his age.

*Andronicus III.*, 1328—1341 A.D.—The conduct of Andronicus the younger, previously to his ascending the throne, did not promise that his reign would be either fortunate or glorious. He was wounded and defeated in a ruinous battle with the Turks, who confirmed the establishment of their empire, whilst his own was rapidly hastening to decay. He died in the forty-fifth year of his age, and left an only son, John Palæologus, who was then nine years of age.

*John III. Palæologus* ; *John IV. Cantacuzenus*, 1341—1391 A.D.—The weakness of the infant emperor was protected by the genius of John Cantacuzenus, the friend and counsellor of Andronicus, who had appointed him regent during the minority of his son. Cantacuzenus, however, while absent on the public service, after ruling well and wisely for five years, was proscribed as an enemy to the church and state, and driven by injustice to revolt. He allied himself in 1347 to the Turks, whose sultan, Orchan, espoused his daughter Theodora, and by whose aid he besieged and took Constantinople. He then compelled the young emperor to marry his

daughter Helena, and admit him a partner in the empire, with the sole administration till John should have attained the age of twenty-five. But an open rupture taking place in

**1355**

A.D.

1355, Cantacuzenus descended from the throne, embraced the monastic habit and profession, and spent the remainder of his days in piety and studious pursuits, in a convent on Mount Athos, where he died in 1411 A.D., aged more than 100 years. Before his abdication, the Turks had invaded nearly the whole of the empire, and maintained themselves in forts at a short distance from Constantinople, which they now obviously threatened.

Their appearance before the capital in 1369 caused John Palæologus to apply to Rome and Venice for aid, without success, and in the latter place he was detained for debt. His son Andronicus conspired against him soon after, and was thrown into prison, but escaping after a detention of two years, he took Constantinople and obliged his father to take refuge with Bajazet, sultan of the Turks, who assisted him to recover the capital. His alliance with Bajazet cost him his life, ultimately, for his haughty ally compelled him to destroy the fortifications of Constantinople, as soon as he had had the breaches caused by the late attack to be repaired. This, indeed, and other slights and insults that he received from the sultan, preyed upon his spirits and health, already impaired by excesses of all kinds, and he died in 1391, after a reign of fifty years, including the time during which he was kept from the throne by John Cantacuzenus.

*Manuel II. Palæologus, 1391—1425 A.D.*—John Palæologus was succeeded at his death by Manuel Palæologus, who was born in 1348, and had been associated with his father in the empire as his colleague since 1373. At the time of his father's death he was a hostage for the observance of the alliance with the Turks by the Greeks at the court of Bajazet, but he contrived to make his escape and obtained possession of the empire. Bajazet immediately laid siege to the city, but was compelled by Manuel to retire once more into Asia Minor. He renewed his attempt in 1397, when the French king, Charles VI., sent a fleet to the aid of the Greek emperor, and compelled the Turkish sultan to raise the siege after it had lasted several months. Towards the end of 1399, negotiations for peace had been nearly completed when Bajazet refused compliance with the terms proposed, and prepared to

renew his attacks. But at this time Timour the Tartar, or Tamerlane, who had already conquered Asia, was pressing on the Turkish dominions in Asia Minor, and Bajazet was obliged to turn his attention from the attack on Constantinople to the defence of his own territories. He was defeated by Tamerlane before Angora, in Galatia, July 28, 1402, and taken prisoner. He died the year following, after a captivity of a few months, during which he was kept by the victor as an object of derision in an iron cage.

Relieved by the attack of Tamerlane on the Turks of any immediate fear of Bajazet, Manuel hastened in 1400 to visit the principal courts of western Europe, to ask for succour against his relentless enemy, but the monarchs of France and Italy, and the emperor of Germany, could not be brought to see the necessity of maintaining the integrity of the eastern empire, or what remained of it, as a bulwark against the encroaching hordes of Asia, and Manuel returned without accomplishing his object. He concluded a truce with Solyman I., the successor of Bajazet, which was observed during the reign of Musa Chelebi and Mahomet I., but in 1423, two years after Amurath II. had ascended the throne, Constantinople was again obliged to endure the horrors of a siege, but the metropolis of the east held out bravely, and in 1425 the previous treaty was renewed after the siege had been raised. Worn out by his long and continuous struggle against fortune, Manuel abdicated in July, 1425, just after the conclusion of the treaty, and retired to a monastery, where he died, just two days after, in the thirty-fifth year of his reign, and the seventy-sixth of his age.

*John V. Palæologus, 1425—1448 A.D.*—Manuel left two sons, John and Constantine, and was succeeded by the former, who had been for some years associated with his father on the throne. In his reign the Turks again **1425** besieged Constantinople, under their emperor Amurath. But, though Amurath was deprived of this conquest by the bravery of John Hunniades, a Hungarian, and waiwode or prince of Transylvania, Palæologus was compelled to enter into a humiliating treaty with the Turks, and submit to dishonourable conditions. He died in the twenty-seventh year of his reign, and left to his brother Constantine an empire almost circumscribed within the walls of Constantinople. **A.D.**

*Constantine XII. Palæologus, 1448—1453 A.D.*—Two years

after the accession of Constantine, who was called *Dracoss*,

**1448** Amurath was succeeded by Mahomet II., who, re-

**A.D.** solving to obtain possession of Constantinople, built two forts on the Bosphorus, the one in Europe, and the other in Asia, which commanded that important strait, and blocked up the capital of the Greek empire.

**1453** Having completed his preparations, the sultan in-

**A.D.** vested Constantinople with three hundred thousand men. After sustaining a siege of forty days, the breaches were increased, the garrison diminished, the remnant of the defending force impaired by discord, and the city trembled on the verge of ruin. On the 29th of May the fatal and final assault was made, and the Greeks, driven from their ramparts, sunk under a multitude of foes. The emperor remained firm, and after seeing his dearest friends fall by his side, and himself surrounded only by enemies, he exclaimed, "Has death made such havoc that not a Christian is left to take my life?" He was instantly killed by a Turk, and fell a glorious example of honourable resolution, in expiring with his defenders rather than surviving them. Thus ended the empire of the East, eleven hundred and twenty-five years after it had been established by Constantine. The capture of Constantinople, and the death of the last of the Cæsars, terminated the Roman empire, which was the most durable, as well as the most glorious of any that had hitherto existed on earth.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Greek empire restored by Michael Palæologus .....	A.D. 1261	of the Morea, and some islands .....	A.D. 1373
Entrance of the Turks into Europe .....	„ 1353	Battle of Nicopolis. Turks defeated .....	„ 1396
The Greek empire limited to Constantinople, Thessalonica part		Capture of Constantinople by the Turks, and end of the Eastern empire .....	„ 1453

#### GREEK EMPERORS FROM MICHAEL VIII. TO CONSTANTINE XII.

Michael VIII. ....	A.D. 1261	John III. (restored) ...	A.D. 1354
Andronicus II. ....	„ 1282	Manuel . ....	„ 1391
Andronicus III. ....	„ 1332	John V. ....	„ 1425
John III. Palæologus ..	1341	Constantine XII. ....	„ 1448
John IV. Cantacuzenus ..	„ 1347		

## 7. THE EMPIRES OF NICE AND TREBIZOND.

## (1.) NICE. 1204—1261.

When the Latins captured Constantinople in 1204 the shattered fragments of the Eastern empire were, in some cases, re-constructed into new and smaller empires by persons allied by marriage with, or directly descended from the family of the Comneni. Of these the most important were the empires of Nice and Trebizond, both in Asia Minor, of which the former was founded by Theodore Lascaris, and the latter by Alexius Comnenus and his brother David. It will be more convenient to notice that of Nice first of all.

*Theodore Lascaris I.*, 1204—1222 A.D.—Theodore Lascaris having fled from the persecution of his tyrannical father-in-law, Alexius III., to Bithynia, was received with the warmest demonstrations of joy by the inhabitants, by whose assistance he was enabled to render himself master of Phrygia, Mysia, Lydia, and Ionia, from the Mæander to the Euxine Sea. These provinces he erected into a new empire, called the empire of Nice, from the famous city which he made his imperial residence; and, by his extraordinary valour and conduct, he secured these important acquisitions to himself and his successors. 1204  
A.D.

*John I. Ducas Vataces*, 1222—1255 A.D.—Theodore Lascaris I. was succeeded by his son-in-law John Ducas Vataces, who was equally brave and successful with his celebrated predecessor, and extended his empire not only in Asia, but also in Europe, and almost to the gates of Constantinople, and achieved many brilliant victories over the Turks and Latins. This prince is said to have been a native of France, and was born about 1173. He was descended from the family of Ducas, some of whom had occupied the throne of the Eastern empire prior to its acquisition by the Latin emperors. He married Irene, the daughter of Theodore Lascaris I., and, at the death of this prince, was elected his successor in preference to Theodore's brothers, who claimed the throne, and attempted to take possession of it by the aid of Robert de Courtenay, but without success, for they were defeated, taken prisoners, and deprived of sight by the victor. So powerful did John Ducas become by the aid of his well manned and well-equipped fleet that he obtained the com- 1222  
A.D.

mand of the Hellespont, took Lesbos, Rhodes, and other islands, and occupied the mainland of the Grecian peninsula from the Egean to the Adriatic Sea. He possessed, in fact, the greater part of the territories that had been subject to the Greek emperor before the capture of Constantinople in 1204. He spent a great part of his reign in defending and extending his territory, but his frequent wars did not prevent him from paying attention to the internal organization of his country and the development of its trade and resources. He tried more than once, but always without success, to recover Constantinople. He died at Smyrna on October 30, 1255.

*Theodore Lascaris II., John II. Lascaris, and Michael Palæologus*, 1255—1261 A.D.—John Ducas Vataces was

**1255** succeeded by his son Theodore Lascaris, who, during  
A.D.

his short reign, was attended with great success against the rulers of Epirus and Bulgaria. He died in 1259, and left the empire to his son John II. Lascaris, under the guardianship of Arsenius, the patriarch of Nice, and one Muzalo, a person of mean extraction, but of consummate merit and approved fidelity. On the demise of Theodore the Nicæan nobility procured the assassination of Muzalo during the celebration of the deceased monarch's funeral obsequies; and Michael Palæologus caused himself to be chosen guardian of the young emperor, and to be declared protector of the empire, without any regard to Arsenius, whose merit and integrity were inimical to the designs of the usurper. At length, on his taking Constantinople from the Latins, Palæologus ordered the eyes of the unfortunate prince to be put out, removed the seat of empire to Constantinople, and caused himself to be solemnly crowned emperor of the East. Thus ended the Nicæan empire, about fifty-seven years after its foundation.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Foundation of the Nicæan empire by Theodore Lascaris I. A.D. 1204	nople, and transfer of the government thither by Michael Palæologus ..... A.D. 1261
Capture of Constanti-	

#### EMPERORS OF NICE:

Theodore Lascaris I. ... A.D. 1204	John II. Lascaris and
John I. Ducas Vataces ,, 1222	Michael Palæologus
Theodore Lascaris II... ,, 1255	as protector .. ..... A.D. 1259



## (2.) TREBIZOND. 1204—1461.

Of the empire of Trebizond but few and unimportant records have been left in history. Soon after the reduction of Constantinople by the Latins, Alexius Comnenus, surnamed the Great, and his brother David, seized on the provinces of Colchis, Galatia, Paphlagonia, and Cappadocia, with several cities of note, and fixed the imperial residence at Trebizond, or Trapezond. John II. Comnenus, supposed to have been the first who assumed the title of emperor, was confirmed in his dignities by Michael Palæologus, who invited him to Constantinople, and gave him his daughter Eudocia in marriage.

Trebizond, assaulted by the Greeks, Latins, Turks, Saracens, and Persians, and more immediately by the emperors of Nice, sometimes collectively, and sometimes separately, struggled so bravely against their attempts as to make us regret that there remain only hints of the exploits of this little empire, without any circumstantial detail. Scarcely anything is remarkable except its last catastrophe. Mahomet II., surnamed the Great, by whom Constantinople was captured in 1453 A.D., declared war against David Comnenus, the last of the emperors, invested his metropolis by sea and land, and led both David and all his family in triumph to Constantinople, whence they were removed to Adrianople and inhumanly massacred, except the youngest son, who embraced the faith of Mahomet, and one of his sisters, who was received into the victor's harem. Such was the melancholy catastrophe of the empire of Trebizond, in the year of Christ 1461, and in the 257th year of its foundation.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Foundation of the empire of Trebizond by Alexius Comnenus ... A.D. 1204	Subversion of the empire by the Turkish Emperor Mahomet II. A.D. 1461
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## EMPERORS OF TREBIZOND.

Alexius I. .... A.D. 1204	Alexius II. .... A.D. 1298
Andronicus I. .... " 1222	Andronicus II. .... " 1330
John I. .... " 1235	Manuel II. .... " 1332
Manuel I. .... " 1238	Basil I. .... " 1332
Andrew .... " 1263	Irene .... " 1340
George I. .... " 1266	Anna .... " 1341
John II. .... " 1280	John III. .... " 1342

Michael .....	A.D. 1344	Alexius IV.....	A.D. 1417
Alexius III. ....	„ 1349	John IV. ....	„ 1446
Manuel III.....	„ 1390	David .....	„ 1458

## CHAPTER XII.

### SYNOPSIS OF THE EARLY HISTORY OF SOME OF THE COUNTRIES AND TRIBES OF EUROPE.

It will be useful here, as a sort of introduction to modern and mediæval history, and more especially the history of Europe, to give some account of the ancient people and tribes that occupied the western, central, and northern parts of the continent before portions of these fell under the dominion of Rome, and to give the briefest possible outline of their history. Most, if not all, of these tribes have been named in the long course of Roman history, and their connection with the empires of ancient times, and more especially Rome, has been sufficiently indicated. But, as some succinct account of each may be useful to the student who has already become familiar with their names, it seems that this is the most fitting place and opportunity at which to introduce it.

#### 1. THE CELTÆ, CELTS, OR KELTS.

The Celtæ, or Celts, were a people that yielded to no nation in point of antiquity, and those who profess to trace their source to its remotest origin believe them to be the descendants of Gomer, the eldest son of Japheth. Ethnologists consider them to be a branch of the great Aryan, or Indo-European family of nations, which is supposed to have had its rise in central Asia, to the east of the Caucasus, and north of the Hindoo Koosh and Paropamisan mountains, and which at certain periods is supposed to have sent out colonies, as a hive of bees sends out swarms, chiefly in a western direction, by which the regions west of the Caucasus were overspread. The Aryans, at the first stage of their existence, were a peaceful people, engaged in tillage of the land and feeding cattle; and in this respect they were diametrically opposed in character and pursuits to the Turanians, a wandering race from which the Turks were descended.

It is supposed that the Celts were the first people that quitted the early home of the Aryan races, and, migrating westward, occupied most of Europe, spreading even into its great southern peninsulas. The second swarm that left the original hive passed through Asia Minor, and, crossing into Europe, settled in the Grecian and Italian peninsulas, causing the limited number of their blood relations, the Celts, who had already occupied these regions, to withdraw beyond the Alps and the river Rhone. The Slavonic nations are supposed to have entered Europe next in point of order, having directed their course to the north of the Caspian Sea; and, at a later period, the remainder of the Aryans crossed the Hindoo Koosh and Paropamisian mountains, and took up a position to the south and west of these natural boundaries, becoming the Hindoos, Medes, and Persians. The student will remember, after all, that this is mere speculation, but which is based, and apparently with good reason, on the similarity which exists between certain words expressing the same object in the language of each. The withdrawal of the last part of the Aryans from the cradle of their race, and migration southwards, placed their original home at the disposal of the Turanians, from whom offshoots proceeded at a later period which played a conspicuous part in the final settlement and distribution of European soil.

But whatever their origin may have been, and whatever the road by which they travelled from their early home into Europe, it seems that they had effected a permanent settlement there at the earliest periods of which we have any authentic records. It is possible that the original emigrants never stopped until they reached the shores of the Atlantic, and then, finding that they could go no farther westward, settled in Gaul, or France, as it is now called. Thence the Celtic tribes of Gaul proceeded, some across the Alps into the rich plains of Northern Italy, which was known to the Romans as Cisalpine Gaul; and others across the Pyrenees into Spain, where they amalgamated with the Iberians, a people who were already resident in the Spanish peninsula, and thus became known as the Celtiberians. Others crossed the Rhine and settled all along the north bank of the Danube, while some tried to effect an entrance into Thrace and Greece, but, being foiled, passed into Asia Minor and settled in that part of it which is called Galatia about 278 B.C. It seems as if

the tide of emigration had been a barrier of the Atlantic seaboard, as the courses that have been indicated managed to cross the Channel into dants peopled, in the first instance, United Kingdom.

The Celts who settled on the throughout France, and advanced west to the Pyrenees and the Ge country the name of Gallia, or Ga: the more northern regions above north of the Danube were called that part of Germany now denomin appellation of Cimbric Chersones make mention of them in so many lius imagined the name of *Celtic* to of that division of the globe.

The European territories of the tended from the Danube to the far and Portugal, and were bounded terranean, and on the west and n and Northern Oceana. In the time Denmark, and the other norther the islands of Britain, Ireland, and part of the Celtic Gallia.

The religion of the Celts was the Scythians. They erected nei but planted groves, which, being were deemed more suitable for the being. They chose the oak as t the Deity; for that tree was always veneration, and many supernatural its wood, leaves, fruit, and misk the actions and practices of their but in later ages their simplicit idolatrous superstition of other n and heroes soon became the objects placed all their religious concern cures, since called druids and t fices and all other solemn rites, and sophy, astronomy, and astrology, t of the immortality and transmigrat

ever, were taught only by oral tradition, and were accounted too sacred to be committed to writing. Their devotional hymns, the exploits of their warriors, and their exhortations to the people before a battle, were couched in verse, and sung by them on proper occasions. They accompanied their poetic effusions with instrumental music, and were held in such veneration that, if one of them made his appearance whilst two armies were engaged, both sides immediately ceased fighting.

Anciently the Celts led a wandering life, migrating from place to place in quest of pasture, conquest, or amusement. Their usual food was venison and wild fruits, and their common beverage milk. At length, however, they began to build towns and cities, which they fortified and embellished with walls, towers, and magnificent edifices. Their arms were bows and arrows, darts, scimitars, daggers, javelins, and spears; and they also used shields and helmets. Like all other idolatrous nations, they consulted their priests on all emergencies, especially before an engagement. On such occasions they observed the heavens, and, if possible, avoided fighting till after the full moon.

## 2. SPAIN.

The country, anciently distinguished by the names of Iberia, Hesperia, and Hispania, and now known by the names of Spain and Portugal, forms the extreme south-western Peninsula of the continent of Europe, from which it is divided by the Pyrenees. It is supposed that the original people of the Spanish Peninsula were descended from Gomer, the eldest son of Japheth, whose posterity is said to have peopled Europe, at least as far as the Danube and the Rhine. Others again assert that the Peninsula was first peopled by the Celts, who entered the country from the north, and that then another race entered it from the south, who became known as Iberians. These Iberians forced back the Celts, and even effected a lodgment in the southern parts of Gaul. An amalgamation of the races, however, was formed in the central and northern districts of the Peninsula, and the people who descended from this mingling of races were called Celtiberians. With regard to the religion of the early inhabitants,

if they were the posterity of Japheth, it may be rationally supposed that they were originally instructed in the worship of the true God, but that, as their country was afterwards invaded by the Phœnicians, Carthaginians, and other nations, a strange diversity of religious opinions and ceremonies was gradually introduced among them.

The government of the Spaniards, from their first settling in Europe, was probably monarchical; but as they increased in numbers and augmented their territories, they divided themselves into a multiplicity of petty kingdoms and commonwealths. The original language of the ancient people of the Spanish Peninsula was the Celtic.

The history of Spain after the conquest of the country by the Carthaginians is given in outline in the history of Rome, of which empire it long formed a part. After the subduing of the Carthaginians this country remained under the government of the consuls of the republic, and then under the emperors from Augustus, who completed its subjugation, till Honorius, in whose reign the Romans were expelled by the Vandals, Alans, and Suevi. Visigothic kings possessed at first the greater part, and then the whole of the country, during the space of three hundred years, from 411 A.D. to 711 A.D. Six Suevic kings reigned in the parts of the Peninsula now called Portugal and Gallicia from 409 A.D. to 469 A.D., for sixty years. Two kings of the Vandals reigned in Southern Spain from 409 A.D. to 425 A.D., when the Vandal kingdom was transferred to Africa. The Visigothic dominion in Spain was finally subverted by the Mahometans in 711 A.D.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Carthaginians begin to form settlements in Spain .....	B.C. 360	tania, now called Portugal, by Viriathus ...	B.C. 145
New Carthage founded by the Carthaginian general Hasdrubal ...	„ 342	Assassination of Viriathus by the Romans ..	140
The Romans expel the Carthaginians, and take possession of Spain .....	„ 206	Rebellion of the Celtiberian chief Sertorius against the Romans...	„ 77
War of independence commenced against the Romans in Lusitania, now called Portugal, by Viriathus ...		Defeat and assassination of Sertorius .....	„ 72
		Julius Cæsar conducts a war of subjugation in Spain .....	„ 67
		Spain divided into three	

provinces by the emperor Augustus.....	B.C. 27	established in Spain by Ataulphus .....	A.D. 411
The northern tribes of Spain brought into final subjection by Augustus .....	„ 25	Departure of the Vandals under Genserich from Spain into Africa .....	„ 427
The Christian religion first preached in Spain about .....	A.D. 250	The Suevi conquered by Theodoric the Visigoth, and their king taken prisoner .....	„ 451
The country suffers from an invasion of the Franks, etc. ....	„ 60	Euric the Visigoth becomes king of all the Spanish Peninsula.....	„ 466
Spain taken from the Romans by the Visigoths, Alans, Suevi, and Vandals .....	„ 409	The Franks driven out of Spain by Recared I. ....	„ 587
The Visigothic kingdom		Subversion of the Visigothic kingdom in Spain by the Saracens ..	„ 711

## VISIGOTHIC KINGS OF SPAIN.

Ataulphus ...A.D. 411	Theudisel.....A.D. 548	Suintila .....A.D. 621
Sigeric ..... „ 415	Agila ..... „ 549	Sisenand ..... „ 631
Wallia ..... „ 415	Atanagild ... „ 554	Chintilla ..... „ 636
Theodoric I... „ 420	Liuva I. .... „ 567	Tulga ..... „ 640
Thorismund .. „ 451	Leovigild..... „ 568	Cindasuinto... „ 642
Theodoric II. „ 452	Recared I. ... „ 586	Recesuinto ... „ 649
Euric ..... „ 466	Liuva II..... „ 601	Wamba ..... „ 672
Alaric ..... „ 483	Witeric ..... „ 603	Ervigius ..... „ 680
Gesalric ..... „ 506	Gundemar ... „ 610	Eciga ..... „ 683
Theodoric II. „ 511	Sisebert ..... „ 612	Witiza ..... „ 698
Amalric ..... „ 522	Recared II.... „ 621	Roderick ..... „ 711
Theudis ..... „ 531		

## SUEVIC KINGS IN WESTERN SPAIN.

Hermenric... A.D. 409	Rechiarus .. A.D. 448	Frumarius .. A.D. 460
Rechila ..... „ 438	Maldras ..... „ 457	Remismuna .. „ 464

## VANDAL KINGS IN SOUTHERN SPAIN.

Gunderic.....A.D. 409	Genserich .....	A.D. 425
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## 3. GAUL.

The Gauls were the immediate descendants of the Celts, or the same people under a more modern name. The Romans generally called this country by the name of Celto-Gallia, and distinguished one part of it from another by the appellation of Cisalpina or Citerior, Transalpina or Ulterior, and

Subalpina. Afterwards Julius Caesar distinguished the whole of this region under the names of Belgia, Aquitania, and Gallia Propria; the last of which was subdivided into Comata, Braccata, and Togata.

When Gaul was first invaded by the Romans it was divided into a number of small independent states, which differed from each other in their language, institutions, and laws. Most of these states were under an aristocratical form of government; but several were governed by kings, who were always elected, and whose authority was very limited. Some states were so averse to regal government that death was the punishment of him who aimed at the sovereignty.

Previously to their subjugation by the Romans, the Gauls erected neither temples nor statues; but they planted spacious groves, which, being open on the top and sides, were deemed more suitable for the worship of an unconfined being. They chose the oak as a favourite emblem of the Deity; because that tree was always considered with veneration, and many supernatural virtues were attributed to its wood, leaves, fruit, and mistletoe. All religious concerns were placed in the hands of their priests, afterwards called druids and bards, who performed sacrifices and all other solemn rites, and instructed youth in philosophy, astronomy, and astrology, and taught the doctrines of the immortality and the transmigration of souls.

After this country had been conquered by Caesar the Gauls continued for a considerable time submissive to the Roman government; but being provoked by the rigid exactions of the prefects, they attempted in vain to recover their former liberty. When the Roman empire was overrun by the barbarous nations, Gaul was invaded first by the Visigoths, then by the Burgundians, and finally by the Franks, a fierce people of Germany, who established themselves in the northern part of the country about 406 A.D., and had secured a considerable part of it at the dismemberment of the Roman empire in 476 A.D. From the Franks Gaul became known as France, and with the establishment of the Merovingian dynasty under Pharamond in 418 A.D., the mediæval and modern history of the country properly begins. The ancient history of Gaul, as far as it is known with any degree of certainty, is given in outline in the History of Rome.



## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Northern Italy invaded by the Gauls.....	B.C. 506	Aurelian defeats the Franks in Gaul.....	A.D. 241
Rome sacked by the Gauls under Brennus ..	390	Franks and Burgundians defeated by Probus ..	277
Invasion of Greece by the Gauls .....	279	The vine first cultivated in Gaul .....	280
Romans acquire Cisalpine Gaul .....	222	Franks defeated by Maximian .....	288
Romans called into Transalpine Gaul by the people of Massilia.....	154	Alemanni defeated by Julian in Gaul .....	357
Gallia Narbonensis, or Southern Gaul, acquired by the Romans ..	118	Franks and Alemanni driven out of Gaul by Theodosius I. ....	370
Cimbri invade Cisalpine Gaul .....	101	Renewed ravages of the Alemanni .....	377
Invasion of Gaul by Julius Cæsar .....	58	Franks, Burgundians, and Vandals gain a permanent footing in Gaul .....	406
Conquest of Gaul completed by Julius Cæsar .....	51	Invasion of Gaul by Attila, who is defeated by the Romans, Franks, and Visigoths ..	451
Cisalpine Gaul incorporated with Italy ...	43	Visigoths obtain South Western Gaul .....	419
Rebellion of the Gauls under Florus and Sarcrovir .....	A.D. 21	End of Roman empire : Supremacy of the Franks established... ..	476
Christianity introduced into Gaul about.....	170		

## 4. BRITAIN.

Great Britain, which comprehends the kingdoms of England and Scotland, and the principality of Wales, was also anciently denominated Albion, from the whiteness of its cliffs. Camden supposes the name Britain to be derived from the Celtic word *brith*, painted, as the people were in the habit of staining their bodies with wood. The southern parts of this island are said to have been first peopled by the Gauls; while the inhabitants of the northern parts are believed to have come originally from Germany. The Picts, who occupied the south-eastern part of the country, or the "lowlands," which lay to the northward of the Tyne, are said to have migrated from either Germany or Scythia, and formed a settlement in Britain. Bede asserts that the Scots came from Ireland, under the conduct of a chief called Reuda, and made themselves masters of

certain territories in the country of the Picts. The Picts were conquered, and their capital, Camelon, taken by Kenneth II., in 843 A.D. The Picts were then amalgamated with the Scots, and Kenneth became king of the whole of Scotland.

According to Julius Cæsar and others, the country was well peopled, and abundantly stocked with cattle. The towns, or rather villages, were composed of wretched huts, which were constructed of reeds or wood, and situated at a small distance from each other, and generally in the centre of a wood. The inhabitants stained their bodies with the juice of woad of an azure colour, and wore long hair; but they shaved the rest of their bodies, except the upper lip. Their usual food consisted of milk, fruits, and animals taken in hunting. They wore but little clothing, and they made use of copper or iron plates, weighed by a certain standard, to supply the place of money.

The religion of the ancient Britons was nearly similar to that of their neighbours the Gauls. The civil government of this island also bore a striking resemblance to that of Gaul; for the whole country was divided into several small states, each of which was governed by a chief.

Julius Cæsar having subjugated all the warlike nations on the opposite coast, conceived the design of bringing the Britons also under the dominion of Rome. However, he does not conceal the dangers to which the valour of this people exposed him, and confesses that, without their intestine discords and misunderstandings, he could never have subdued them. After building castles and forts in those districts which had submitted, the Romans used every possible means to habituate the natives to the arts of peace. The Britons, therefore, after being subjected to the Roman yoke, though greatly increased in numbers, and improved in point of domestic enjoyment, became feeble and effeminate.

Britain was divided by the Romans into the following provinces. 1. *Britannia Prima*, including the country south of the Thames and the Bristol Channel; 2. *Britannia Secunda*, comprising the whole of Wales, Herefordshire, Monmouthshire, and parts of Shropshire, Gloucester, and Worcester-shire; 3. *Flavia Cæsariensis*, from the east coast to the eastern borders of *Britannia Secunda*, having the Thames and Severn on the south, and the Mersey, Don, and Humber on the

north ; 4. *Maxima Cæsariensis*, from the Mersey and the Humber to the wall of Severus ; 5. *Valentia*, or *Valentiana*, from the wall of Severus or Hadrian to the wall of Antonius, between the Forth and Clyde ; 6. *Vespasiana*, extending from the wall of Antoninus to a line separating the province from Caledonia, which probably ran from the estuary of the Clyde along the chain of mountains forming the western limits of Perth, skirted Lake Erich, and then took a northerly direction to the Murray, or Moray Firth. Caledonia, as the remainder of the country was called, was never subdued by the Romans.

The various British tribes were distributed as follows. In *Britannia Prima* the *Cantii* occupied Kent ; the *Belgæ*, Somerset and parts of Wilts and Hants ; the *Damnonii*, *Cimbri*, and *Cornubii*, Devonshire and Cornwall ; the *Bibroci*, parts of Berkshire and the adjacent counties ; the *Segontiaci*, parts of Hants and Berks ; the *Hedui*, parts of Somersetshire and Gloucestershire ; the *Atrebatii* and *Ancalites*, parts of Berkshire and Wiltshire ; the *Durotriges*, Dorsetshire ; and the *Regni*, Surrey and Sussex. In *Britannia Secunda* the *Silures* occupied South Wales, and the *Ordovices*, North Wales, both on the east side along the borders of England. The *Cangiani* were settled in Carnarvonshire, and the *Dimeciæ* in the western part of South Wales. In *Flavia Cæsariensis* the *Carnabii* occupied Cheshire and part of Shropshire ; the *Cassii* and *Catyeuchlani*, parts of Herefordshire ; the *Dobuni* part of Gloucestershire ; the *Iceni*, Norfolk, Suffolk, and Cambridgeshire ; the *Trinobantes*, Essex ; and the *Coitani*, Lincolnshire, Nottinghamshire, and Leicestershire. In *Maxima Cæsariensis* the *Brigantes* and *Parisii* possessed the East Riding of Yorkshire, and the *Volantii* and *Sistuntii*, Lancashire. In *Valentia* the *Ottadini* spread along the east coast of Northumberland ; the *Gadeni* occupied the interior of Northumberland and South of Scotland ; the *Selgovæ*, Dumfriesshire and Kirkcudbrightshire ; and the *Novantæ*, Wigtonshire. The *Damnii* had the country immediately north and south of Agricola's wall. In *Vespasiana*, which was subdued by Agricola, and remained only for a short time under Roman control, the *Horestii* lived to the south-west of the Tay ; the *Vecturones*, in Angus and Fifeshire ; the *Taixali*, in Aberdeenshire ; the *Vacomagi*, in parts of Inverness, Banff, Moray, Nairn, &c. ; and the *Attacoti* about Lake Lomond. In Caledonia Argyle

and the peninsula of Cantire were occupied by the Epidii; the north of Argyle by the Cerones; part of Inverness by the Caledonii; the south of Ross and Cromarty by the Cantæ; and the northern counties by the Mertæ, Logi, Carnabii, and Catini.

The history of Britain under the Romans has been given in outline in the History of Rome. On the invasion of the Roman empire by the Goths and Vandals, the Britons were left to themselves; and being attacked by the Picts, whom

**450** they were unable to repel, they requested the assistance of the Saxons, a warlike tribe of Germany.

**A.D.**

Accordingly, the Saxons, under the command of Hengist and Horsa, landed in Britain; and after defeating the Scots and Picts, they conceived the design of appropriating their conquests to the aggrandisement of their own nation. Other Saxons arrived soon after; and thus was established, after an obstinate contest of near one hundred and fifty years, the heptarchy, or seven Saxon kingdoms in Britain. The southern part of the island, except Wales and Cornwall, had now totally changed its inhabitants, language, customs, and political institutions.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

First invasion of Britain by Julius Cæsar .....	B.C.	55	Wall built from the Firth of Forth to the Firth of Clyde by Agricola ...	A.D.	81
Second invasion by Cæsar ..	"	54	The Caledonians, under Galgacus, defeated by Agricola .....	"	84
The emperor Caligula in Britain .....	A.D.	40	Agricola recalled by Domitian .....	"	84
Caractacus defeated by Aulus Plautius .....	"	43	The emperor Hadrian in Britain .....	"	120
The emperor Claudius in Britain .....	"	43	Wall built by Hadrian from the Tyne to the Solway .....	"	120
Caractacus sent a prisoner to Rome .....	"	50	The emperor Severus in Britain .....	"	207
First introduction of Christianity, as it is supposed .....	"	60	Wall of Hadrian repaired and strengthened by Severus .....	"	207
The island of Mona, or Anglesea, taken by Suetonius Paulinus ...	"	61	Death of Severus at York .....	"	211
Revolt of Boadicea, who is defeated by Suetonius, and poisons herself .....	"	61	The piratical tribes of the north defeated by Carausius .....	"	286
Agricola assumes the government of Britain...	"	78			

Carausius assumes the title of emperor of Britain .....	A.D. 288	Commencement of dismemberment of Roman empire : part of of the troops recalled A.D. 403
Allectus murders Carausius at York .....	„ 297	Constantine emperor of Britain .....
Allectus defeated and killed by the Romans ..	„ 300	„ 411
Alban, first British martyr, suffered under Diocletian .....	„ 303	A legion sent to the assistance of the Britons from Rome .....
Britain ravaged by Picts and Scots .....	„ 367	„ 415
Maximus emperor of Britain .....	„ 382	Final abandonment of Britain by the Romans ..
		„ 420
		The Saxons, under Hengist and Horsa, gain a footing in Britain.....
		„ 450

## 5. GERMANY.

Germany was formerly bounded by the Hercynian forest on the north ; by Scythia and Sarmatia on the east ; by the Danube on the south ; and by the Rhine on the west. Cæsar and Tacitus describe this country as a barren and uncultivated tract, equally dreadful on account of its sterile soil, unwholesome bogs, impervious forests, and inclement winds. The Romans, however, introduced agriculture with tolerable success, and instructed the natives in those useful arts which they had formerly despised.

The tribes of Germany were all comprehended under the general name of Teutons, which was also the special name of a tribe which crossed the Danube, and were defeated at Noreia in 113 B.C., and subsequently cut to pieces by Marius at Aquæ Sextiæ eleven years later. The Teutons, or Germans, formed a portion of the Teutonic race which belonged to the great Indo-Germanic family, the other part including the Scandinavian races. They were opposed to the Celtic race in physical features and mental qualities, although their religion, laws, and customs were similar. They acknowledged one supreme deity, whom they called Esus ; the sun, moon, and stars, and the earth as a goddess called Hertha. They expressed the most profound veneration for the leaves, fruit, and mistletoe of the oak, and usually performed their devotion in sacred groves, woods, or forests. They also worshipped Odin or Mars, and deities which, in general attributes, corresponded to the Hercules, Mercury, Venus, Diana, &c., of the Greeks and Romans, and sometimes they sprinkled their altars with human blood.

Germany, like Gaul, was divided into tribes, each of which had an independent government. They held their national councils at least once a year, when they deliberated concerning peace or war, and all matters of importance. This country was never totally subjugated by the Romans. It was afterwards conquered, about 785 A.D., by Charlemagne of France, whom the pope declared emperor, and who fixed his imperial residence in Germany. A separate but brief notice is given of the principal tribes of Germany which figured most conspicuously towards the close of ancient history.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Illyria by the Teutons, and Cimbri: Romans defeated .....	B.C. 113	Roman garrisons beyond the Danube withdrawn.....	A.D. 180
Teutons and Cimbri totally defeated by Marius .....	" 102	First entrance of the Franks into Gaul .....	" 238
Invasion of Germany by Julius Cæsar.....	" 55	Invasion of Germany by the Huns .....	" 357
Invasion of Germany by Drusus .....	" 12	Alans, Suevi, Vandals, and other German and Gothic tribes move southward.....	" 409
Battle of Teutoberg: Roman army under Varus destroyed by Arminius .....	A.D. 9	Charlemagne, king of France, declares war against the Saxons....	" 772
Revolt of the Batavians under Claudius Civilis .....	" 69	Conquest of Germany by the emperor Charlemagne .....	" 785

## 6. GERMAN TEUTONS.

## (1.) SUEVI.

In the time of Cæsar the Suevi were numbered among the most warlike nations of Germany, and agreed in customs and manners with the other inhabitants of that extensive country. Their original situation is said to have been between the Elbe and the Vistula. They invaded Gaul in 71 B.C. under their king Ariovistus, and were not driven out of the country until 58 B.C., when they were conquered by Cæsar. Tiberius transported some thousands of them into Gaul, and assigned lands to others beyond the Danube. They joined Radagaisus in the invasion of Italy in 405 A.D., and, on the defeat of their leader, passed into Gaul with the Vandals and Alans, and thence into Spain in 409 A.D. There they formed a kingdom in the vicinity of the towns of Merida, Seville, and

Carthagena, which, in the year 469 A.D., was reduced to a province of the Gothic monarchy by Euric, king of the Visigoths, after it had subsisted just sixty years. The Suevi then became gradually incorporated with the Visigoths, and about 585 A.D. no distinctive marks of their separate nationality remained. A list of Suevic kings in Spain is given in page 185.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Invasion of Gaul by the Suevi .....	B.C. 71	Suevic kingdom founded in Spain .....	A.D. 409
Conquest of the Suevi by Julius Cæsar .....	„ 58	Suevi conquered, and Suevic kingdom subverted by Euric the Visigoth .....	„ 469
Suevi in Italy under Radagaisus .....	A.D. 405		

## (2.) FRANKS.

The Franks were a motley people of several ancient nations, dwelling on the banks of the Lower Rhine and Weser, who, having entered into a confederacy against the Romans about 240 A.D., assumed the name of Franks, which signified *Free*. In ancient history many nations are comprised under this general denomination. At a very early period they inhabited a tract of territory which comprehends the present provinces of Westphalia, Hesse, and some adjacent states, and, in the process of time, extended themselves along the Rhine as far as the efflux of that river and the ocean.

They were hospitable to strangers, but much addicted to treachery, unmindful of the most solemn engagements, and troublesome neighbours. They committed many depredations in Gaul in 256 A.D., and even penetrated into Spain, which they held in subjection and constantly plundered for the space of twelve years. They were driven back again into their own country by the Emperor Probus in 277 A.D. Subsequently they invaded Gaul several times, and notably in 355, when they were defeated by the Emperor Julian, who allowed them to settle in Brabant. In the early part of the fifth century they established their power over Flanders, and began to extend their conquests southwards with success. Indeed, the kingdom of the Franks may be considered to have been established in Gaul about 418 A.D. by Pharamond, the son of Marcomir, who reigned till 428, and was one of the most powerful princes among them. His son and successor, Clodion, was an

illustrious and patriotic sovereign, and extended his conquests as far as the Somme, and also seized on Treves and Cologne. Merovæus, who succeeded him, advanced as far as the Seine, and from him the first race of French kings was called the Merovingian dynasty. His son and successor, Childeric, extended his conquests as far as the Loire, reduced the cities of Paris and Angiers, and made himself master of Orleans. He was succeeded in 481 A.D. by his son Clovis the Great, who is considered the actual founder of the French monarchy. The details of the reign of the Merovingian kings belong to the history of France.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Tribes on the Lower Rhine, &c., form confederacy against the Romans, and call themselves Franks, about A.D. 240	Defeat of Franks in Gaul by Julian ..... A.D. 355
The Franks driven out of Gaul and Spain by Probus ..... „ 277	Establishment of Frank kingdom in Flanders under Pharamond ... „ 418
	French monarchy surely founded by Clovis ... „ 481

#### (3.) BURGUNDIANS.

The Burgundians are believed by some to have descended originally from the Roman soldiers who were appointed to guard the interior of Germany; but Pliny the Elder supposes them to have been a German nation, descended akin to the Vandals. They were the least warlike of all the tribes who inhabited Germany. The greatest part of them were mechanics, and, previously to their settling in Gaul, carried into that country the products of their ingenuity and industry. After the failure of Radagaisus in Italy in 405 A.D., the Burgundians, with the Suevi and Alans, passed into Gaul, and were permitted by the Romans to settle there. They first entered Savoy, as it is now called, and at length fixed the seat of their government at Vienne, in Dauphiny, which they afterwards extended to Dijon and Macon, in the country since called Burgundy. Childebert and Clothaire, kings of the Franks, invaded the territories of the Burgundians, obliged Gondemar, their sovereign, to elude destruction by a precipitate flight, and made themselves entire masters of the kingdom.



## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Settlement of Burgundians in Gaul.....	A.D. 406	Gondebaud murders his brother Chilperic .....	A.D. 491
The Roman emperor grants territory to Gundicar .....	" 413	Defeat of Gondebaud by Clovis the Great .....	" 500
Defeat of Burgundians by Aëtius, and invasion of their country by the Huns .....	" 435	Sigismund taken and killed by the Franks .....	" 523
		Burgundy taken by the Franks under Childebert and Clothaire ...	" 534

## KINGS OF BURGUNDY.

Gundicar .....	A.D. 413	Gondebaud.....	A.D. 491
Gunderic .....	" 436	Sigismund .....	" 516
Chilperic .....	" 466	Gondemar .....	" 523

## (4.) ALEMANNI.

This people, who made their first appearance about the beginning of the third century, are said to have been originally a motley multitude, consisting of several nations; and their ancient territories are placed by certain writers in the present duchy or kingdom of Wurtemberg. They were highly celebrated for their bravery and equestrian skill, and bore an insurmountable hatred to the idea of slavery. Various reasons have been given for the adoption of this peculiar name, which means "all men," and is said to have been used by them in allusion to the fact that men from all the German tribes were to be found among them, and to their bravery, every one of them being what is termed, in modern parlance, "every inch a man." They began to infest the Roman territories with their predatory incursions about 210 A.D., and Caracalla claimed to have defeated them on the Danube in 214. They invaded Northern Italy in 259, and again in 270, when they, received a check from the Emperor Aurelian. In the middle of the fourth century they renewed their attacks, and were defeated by Julian in 357, and Jovian in 368. On the destruction of the Western empire they obtained a settlement by force of arms in that part of Gaul now denominated Alsace. Hence they marched into the northern portions, which they wasted with fire and sword; but they were suddenly attacked and defeated by Clovis the Great, king of the Franks, who, in 496 A.D., defeated and slew their last king near Cologne, and then transported the people into the coun-

tries lying between the Alps and the Danube. From that time the Alemanni were without any king of their own, and were subject partly to the Ostrogoths in Italy, and partly to the Franks in Gaul. But, although the Alemanni no longer possessed any separate nationality, their name still lives in *Allemagne*, the modern French name of Germany.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

First attack of Alemanni on the Roman empire .....	A.D. 211	Settlement of Alemanni on the banks of the Rhine, about .....	A.D. 406
Alleged defeat of Alemanni by Caracalla ...	„ 214	Alemanni defeated by Clovis the Great, and end of the Allman kingdom.....	„ 496
The Alemanni defeated by Aurelian .....	„ 270		

#### (5.) MARCOMANNI.

The Marcomanni, or “Men of the Frontier,” originally resided near the sources of the Danube, in the district between the Rhine, the Neckar, and the Upper Danube, which was taken by the Romans and Gauls in the time of Drusus, and called the *Agri Decumates*, or “Tithed Lands.” They removed, under their king Maroboduus, into the country of the Boii, or Bohemia. Their customs, manners, and religion were the same as the other German nations; and their principal characteristics were an insatiable thirst of military fame, and an unconquerable abhorrence of slavery.

The Marcomanni had invaded Gaul with other German tribes in Julius Cæsar’s time, and had been driven out by him in 58 B.C. It was then that the people who were henceforth distinguished by this name fixed themselves in the locality which has been already named. Maroboduus, who was born about 18 B.C., was sent while yet a boy as a hostage to Rome; and, having acquired a liking for imperial institutions during his residence there, and being ambitious of founding a Teutonic empire similar to that of the Latin empire of Rome, and contiguous to it on its northern borders, he persuaded his people to give up their present settlements, which were exposed to constant assaults from the Gauls, and to migrate eastward into the country now called Bohemia. Here he raised a disciplined army, similar to the legions of the Romans, and managed to extend his authority over the Norisci,

Quadi, and other tribes on the upper course of the Danube. When Augustus heard of the movement that was being carried out in this quarter, he sent against the newly-constructed empire Tiberius, who, in consequence of a revolt in Pannonia and Dalmatia, offered terms of peace to Maroboduus, which were accepted (6 A.D.). The Marcomanni, ultimately disliking the sovereignty which Maroboduus sought to assume over them, expelled him, and he fled into Italy, where he died at Ravenna, a pensioner of Tiberius, in 35 A.D.

The Marcomanni and the Cherusci came into collision about 17 A.D., when the former were defeated. They held their own, however, for many centuries in the territories that they had occupied, taking part in most of the great invasions of Italy by the tribes of the north. Ultimately they were conquered by Attila, and, passing under his dominion, marched with him to the attempted conquest of Gaul and Italy in 451 A.D. After this time little or nothing is heard of them in history.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Marcomanni and other German tribes driven out of Gaul by Julius Cæsar	B.C.	58	Marcomanni by Augustus	A.D.	6
Migration of the Marcomanni to Bohemia under Maroboduus, about	A.D.	4	Defeat of the Marcomanni by the Cherusci	,,	17
Tiberius sent against the			Expulsion of Maroboduus by his subjects, about	,,	19
			Marcomanni conquered by Attila, about	,,	445

## (6.) QUADI.

The Quadi were a warlike people, who inhabited the country now called Moravia, and who resembled all the other German tribes in their customs, manners, and religion. They took part with the Marcomanni and the tribes of Germany and the north in the assaults on the Roman empire. They submitted to Aurelian in 167 A.D., and offered to accept a king appointed by the Romans, but they soon began to give trouble again, and in 174 A.D. a remarkable battle between the Romans and this people is recorded, in which the former, who had been lured into a spot where no water could be obtained, would have been defeated had not a thunderstorm come on, which afforded them the desired relief. The Quadi

were never subdued by the Romans. After the year 407 they entirely disappeared, and were mingled and confounded with the Germans.

## 7. SCANDINAVIAN, OR NORTHERN TEUTONS.

### (1.) GOTHs.

The origin of the Goths is unknown. Ulphilas, a Gothic bishop of the fourth century, says that they were a tribe of Germany, and as they are first noticed on the southern coasts of the Baltic and on the banks of the Vistula, it may be sufficient to consider them as belonging to the Teutons of the north. It is possible that they were a Scandinavian race that crossed over from the Scandinavian peninsula and spread along the southern shores of the Baltic, leaving behind them the remainder of the tribe from which the Swedish province of Gothland takes its name. In the beginning of the third century after the Christian era, the Goths, already divided into the nations of the Visigoths, or Western Goths, and the Ostrogoths, or Eastern Goths, migrated again from the southern shores of the Baltic Sea, and occupying the same relative positions, established themselves in the plains of the Ukraine, to the north of the Black Sea, and soon after began to encroach on Dacia.

The Goths were famed, even in the earliest ages, for their hospitality and kindness to strangers. They encouraged philosophy, and their women were virtuous and exemplary in their conduct. However, polygamy was universally countenanced among them, and they committed many unwarrantable depredations on the territory of their neighbours. They wore high shoes made of untanned hides, green tunics with a red border, and garments of various colours scarcely reaching to their knees. Their principal weapons were barbed lances, and hatchets. Their government was monarchical; and their religion similar to that of the other northern nations.

The first attack of the Goths on the Roman empire was made about 250 A.D., when they were defeated by Decius on the Danube. They were defeated again by Æmilianus in 253, and, nine years later, made a descent upon Greece. In 269 A.D. an immense host, numbering 320,000, who had invaded the empire, were defeated by Claudius in the battle of Naïssus; but this had so little effect on them that in 272,

they effected a footing in Dacia and held the country. On invading Mœsia in 332 A.D., they were repulsed by Constantine I. Being defeated and driven out of their territory by the Huns in 375, they obtained settlements south of the Danube by permission of the emperor Valens. Some of the Ostrogoths subsequently obtained settlements in Thrace and Phrygia about ten years later. From this point the history of the Visigoths and Ostrogoths becomes more distinctly defined.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Migration of the Goths from the southern shores of the Baltic, about .....	A.D. 200	Goths defeated by Constantine on attempting to enter Mœsia.....	A.D. 332
First attack of the Goths on the Roman empire foiled by Decius .....	„ 250	The Visigoths, defeated by the Huns, obtain settlements from Valens south of the Danube .....	„ 375
Great defeat of the Goths by Claudius at the battle of Naïssus .....	„ 269	The Ostrogoths obtain settlements in Thrace (Europe) and Phrygia (Asia Minor) .....	„ 386
The Goths effect a settlement in Dacia .....	„ 272		

## (a.) THE VISIGOTHS.

Under Alaric, who was elected king of the Visigoths in 398, the Goths ravaged Thessaly and then invaded Italy, about 400 A.D. They took and plundered Rome in 410 A.D., and two years after invaded Gaul, and subsequently gained possession of the south-western corner of that country. Ataulphus first introduced the power of the Goths into Spain in 411 A.D.; and, without losing sight of that country, Wallia fixed his seat of empire at Toulouse. A brief account of the Visigothic kingdom in Spain is given in the historical sketch of that country (page 183).

## (b.) OSTROGOTHS.

In 476 A.D. Odoacer, a Gothic chief, gave the final blow to the Roman empire, and founded the Gothic kingdom of Italy in the northern part of the peninsula. Just before that time, Zeno, the Isaurian, ceded the south of Pannonia and the south-west of Dacia to the Goths under Theodoric, the son of their king Theodemir, who was succeeded by his son in 475

A.D. Theodoric subsequently lent assistance to Zeno against another Gothic prince, residing within the limits of the Eastern empire; and, in fact, by the important aid he rendered, caused Zeno to be acknowledged as emperor. Zeno, however, was not so grateful as he might have been, and in 488, when Theodoric invaded Thrace and threatened Constantinople, Zeno bought him off by ceding to him Italy. Theodoric then made great preparations for the invasion of that country, and entered it in 489 A.D. Four years later Odoacer surrendered himself to Theodoric, who put him to death, and being acknowledged sovereign of the country, he fixed his residence at Ravenna. His conduct and moderation were exemplary. Having sworn, on assuming the crown, that the Italians should never repent of their having submitted to the Goths, he kept his word, and committed the administration of justice to the most able and upright men. He sometimes attended the pleadings, and passed judgment himself. He revised the collection of imposts, and examined into the complaints of his subjects. He showed the greatest respect for religion, and did honour to his faith by the practice of temperance, chastity, and other Christian virtues. He was also charitable to the poor, particularly widows and orphans, and generously redeemed as many of his subjects as he possibly could from captivity among barbarous nations. His conduct, however, to Boëtius, a man of extraordinary learning and abilities, sensibly diminished the lustre of all his other actions. Boëtius had translated the works of Aristotle, Pythagoras, Nicomachus, Euclid, Archimedes, and Plato into the Latin language, and was equally venerated by every good man for his erudition and morality; but, being accused of treasonable practices, he was unjustly banished to Pavia, with his father-in-law Symmachus, and soon after put to death. Theodoric was soon convinced of his injustice, and abandoned himself to such inordinate grief as occasioned his death, in the seventy-second year of his age, and the thirty-fourth of his reign. Theodoric having, at the time of his death, two grandsons, Amalaric, king of the Visigoths, and Athalaric, son of Amalasuntha, delivered up to the former all the countries belonging to the Visigoths in Spain and Gaul, and declared the latter his successor in Italy, and in all his other dominions. Theodoric had become virtually king of the Visigoths in Gaul, in Spain, as well as sovereign of the Ostrogoths in Italy, be-

cause one of his daughters had married Alaric II., king of the Visigoths, and after the death of Alaric, who had fallen in battle with the Franks in 507 A.D., the Visigoths fearing lest the Franks should carry their conquest into Spain, entrusted the guardianship of the kingdom and the young king to his grandfather.

As Athalaric was too young to assume the government, his mother Amalasuntha took charge of the public affairs, and acted with great prudence and equity. The young prince, however, was no sooner released from the restraint of his tutors, than he abandoned himself to such debaucheries as put a period to his life. Amalasuntha now deemed it indispensably necessary to take a colleague in the government, and made choice of Theodotus, who was a man of great erudition, but unfortunately destitute of gratitude, honour, or probity. The ill-fated Amalasuntha was banished to a solitary island in the lake Bolsena, and there cruelly put to death.

To revenge the murder of this princess, who had always testified her regard to the government of Constantinople, the emperor Justinian sent his general Belisarius against the Ostrogoths, who deposed and put to death their cowardly king Theodotus (536 A.D.), and raised to the throne one Vitiges, who, though of mean extraction, had acquired a considerable degree of celebrity from his prudence and valour. Belisarius soon made himself master of Rome; and Vitiges, after taking the city of Milan, called in the Franks to his assistance. That people, however, fell equally on both parties, and after pillaging Italy, returned laden with booty. The Ostrogoths, now tired of the war, offered the crown to Belisarius, who pretended to accept the offer, and was admitted into the city of Ravenna, as king of Italy. The Roman army appeared so inconsiderable on this occasion, that the Gothic women spat in the faces of their husbands, and branded them with the disgraceful epithet of cowards.

On the departure of Belisarius, in 540 A.D., the Goths, in the course of a year, set up, deposed, and put to death, two kings, Hildibald and Eraric. They then elected Totila, who defeated the Romans both by sea and land, took and dismantled Naples, and invested the city of Rome, of which, after having besieged it for some time, he at length made himself master. Totila intended to demolish the walls of Rome, but was dissuaded from his purpose by Belisarius,

whom the emperor Justinian had again sent into Italy, and who, after repossessing himself of Rome, defeated the Ostrogoths in several engagements. However, 550 A.D. Totila again made himself master of that city, but was completely defeated by Narses, and slain by a chief of the Gepidæ. This prince has been highly and justly commended for his valour, temperance, equity, and humane behaviour to the vanquished.

He was succeeded by Teias, who, though brave, was unlike 553 A.D. Totila in justice and humanity. This sovereign was killed in battle with the Romans, who permitted the Ostrogoths to retire peaceably with all effects, or retain their Italian possessions as subjects of the empire. Thus ended the dominion of the Ostrogoths in Italy, after they had reigned sixty years in that country.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Ostrogoths under Theodoric invade Italy	A.D. 489	Northern Italy conquered by Belisarius	A.D. 539
Defeat and death of Odoacer	„ 493	Revolt of the Ostrogoths under Totila	„ 541
War declared against the Goths in Italy by Justinian I.	„ 535	Goths under Teias defeated by Narses. End of Gothic kingdom of Italy	„ 553

## OSTROGOTHIC KINGS IN ITALY.

Theodoric	A.D. 493	Hildibald	A.D. 540
Athalaric	„ 526	Eraric	„ 541
Theodotus	„ 534	Totila	„ 541
Vitiges	„ 536	Teias	„ 552

## (2.) VANDALS.

According to some historians, the Vandals were originally a nation of the northern Teutons, who came out of Scandinavia with the other Goths; others, on the contrary, believe them to have been a Slavonic people. The earliest accounts that can be relied on describe the Vandals as being settled about 250 A.D. on the banks of the Oder, in the countries now known by the names of Mecklenburg and Brandenburg. Afterwards, another colony fixed their habitations in Pomerania; and, in process of time, they extended themselves



into Dalmatia, Illyricum, and Dacia. They joined the Suevi, Burgundians, and Scythian Alans under Radagaisus in 405, to invade Italy; and, after the defeat of their leader, made their way with the Alans into Gaul, and thence, in 409 A.D., into Spain. From that country, under the famous Genseric, in 427 A.D., they passed over into Africa, where for some time they fixed the throne of their power. This prince reduced Carthage, Sardinia, Sicily, and all the islands between Italy and Africa. In 455 A.D. Genseric sailed to Ostia, and, landing troops, seized Rome and plundered it; but in the year 475, Genseric concluded a peace with the emperor Zeno, whom he compelled to renounce all claim to the provinces of Africa.

Justinian, however, gained a complete victory over the Vandals, and reunited the provinces of Africa to the Eastern empire in 534 A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Vandals known to be settled on the banks of the Oder, about ... A.D. 250	Vandals and Alans pass into Spain ..... A.D. 409
Migration of Vandals southward, about..... „ 330	Migration of Vandals into Africa under Genseric ..... „ 427
Vandals and others under Radagaisus invade Italy and are defeated „ 405	Occupation and sack of Rome by the Vandals „ 455
Vandals and Alans enter Gaul ..... „ 405	Vandal kingdom in Africa subverted by Belisarius ..... „ 534

## VANDAL KINGS IN AFRICA.

Genseric..... A.D. 429	Thrasimund ..... A.D. 496
Huneric ..... „ 477	Hilderic ..... „ 523
Gundamund ..... „ 484	Gelimer ..... „ 530

## (3.) GEPIDÆ.

The Gepidæ were a northern Teutonic nation from the shores of the Baltic, and had the same customs, manners, religion, and language as the Goths and Vandals. They migrated southward at a later period, following in the track of the Ostrogoths and Visigoths, and formed a settlement in the vicinity of the Don and Sea of Azof. They were conquered by the Huns about 395 A.D., but regained their independence on

the death of Attila in 453 A.D. Subsequently they were finally subdued by the Lombards, to whom they lived in subjection, and nothing is mentioned of them as a distinct people after the middle of the sixth century.

#### (4.) HERULI.

The Heruli were originally a Teutonic tribe from the shores of the Baltic, and an offshoot of the Gothic nation. They took part in the Gothic invasion of Greece, about 262 A.D., and after invading Asia Minor (253—259 A.D.), they landed near Athens, where they were defeated in 267 A.D., and again compelled to march northwards. The Goths then threatened Illyricum, but the Heruli, on the retreat of their kinsmen, were persuaded to enter the service of Rome, and had settlements allotted to them along the northern frontier. They preserved their nationality, and took part with the other tribes of the north in the attacks made on the Roman empire during the fifth century. They were almost destroyed by the Longobardi, or Lombards, in 512, and the last time any especial notice is bestowed on them in history, is in the reign of Justinian, when their king, Teias, was defeated by Narses in 553. After this time they were absorbed by the Lombards.

Among the Heruli, it is said that when persons had attained to a certain age, they were placed on a pile of wood, put to death, and their bodies burnt to ashes. When a man died, his wife either strangled herself on his tomb, or became an object of universal contempt; and human sacrifices were frequently offered to appease the gods of the country.

#### (5.) DACIANS.

The Dacians were said by some to be a Gothic nation from the north, and by others to be a people of Thracian origin. Others, again, think that they had, like the Huns and Turks, an Asiatic origin. They resided originally in the country which now comprehends Moldavia, Wallachia, and part of Transylvania, whence they were afterwards transplanted into Illyricum. They were deemed the most formidable of all the northern nations, not only on account of their extraordinary strength and bravery, but also from their considering death as

the termination of misery, and the commencement of incomparable felicity. Their government was monarchical. Attempts were made at various times by the Romans, both prior to, and during the reign of Augustus, to subdue the Dacians, but no decisive result was obtained; and, in the reign of Domitian, in 87 A.D., they totally defeated a Roman army, and their leader, Decebalus, was only led to desist from carrying the war into Roman territory by the payment of an annual tribute. The emperor Trajan, refusing to continue the payment of the tribute, took up arms against them in 101 A.D., defeated them in several engagements, and reduced their kingdom to the form of a Roman province (106 A.D.). They were obliged to live subject to the Romans till the year 270 A.D., when the greatest part of their country was seized by the Goths, and most of the inhabitants were dispersed among the neighbouring barbarians, with whom they gradually became incorporated.

#### (6.) LOMBARDS.

The Longobardi, leaving Scandinavia, their original country, according to their own account, settled between the Elbe and the Oder about the Christian era. Justinian gave them lands in Noricum and Pannonia about 540 A.D., in order to avail himself of their services against the Goths. At this time their king or chief was Adoinus.

On the death of Adoinus his son Alboin succeeded to the sovereignty, and gained some important advantages over the Gepidæ. In the space of three years this prince rendered himself master of all that territory which comprehended Venetia, Liguria, Umbria, Æmilia, and Etruria, and was proclaimed king of Italy amidst the acclamations of his followers. He made choice of Pavia for the metropolis of his new kingdom, and in each of the cities which he had reduced placed a strong garrison, under the command of an officer, whom he honoured with the title of duke. The Longobardi, or Lombards, as they were afterwards called, gave their names to the province now known as Lombardy.

On the death of Alboin, who was assassinated by command of his queen Rosamund for obliging her, it is said, to drink wine out of her father's skull, the Lombards elected for their king Cleopho, or Cleoph, a man of known valour and abilities.

553  
A.D.

various salutary laws for the  
dued the province of Samn  
and projected the reduction  
Ravenna, but was taken off  
teen years.

**Agilulph, duke of Turin**

**591** merit, was next ra  
**A.D.** quest of his queen  
tian religion. Or

**615** Adaloald was in  
**A.D.** being persuaded  
nobles to death, h

The nobles now placed  
Turin, who had espoused th  
and whose reign was marke

**636** home and abroad  
**A.D.** elected to the sove

who has been eq  
equity, and moderation, and  
augmented his dominions by  
Venetia hitherto held by th  
possession of his people's af  
his son Rodoald, who was :

**661** he had cruelly wr  
**A.D.** uncle, reigned nin  
between his two

crown more honourably than he had acquired it ; and having completely defeated the Emperor Constans, improved his victory by the reduction of several places of importance.

On the death of Grimoald, Bertharit returned and associated with him in the kingdom his son Cunibert, whom he had left behind him, and who succeeded him as sole king in 686. Cunibert was driven from the throne by Alachis, duke of Trent, but restored by the principal men among the Lombards, and died universally lamented by his subjects in 700 A.D. He was succeeded by his son Luitbert, a minor, whom Ragimbert, duke of Turin, after causing himself to be proclaimed king of the Lombards, ordered to be stifled in a bath. However, Ansprand, who had been left guardian to the young prince, drove from the throne in 712 A.D. Aribert II., the son of the usurper, who succeeded his father a few months after his accession, and was invested with the regal dignity by the unanimous consent of the people.

Luitprand, the son of Ansprand, who only reigned a few months, led his forces against Ravenna, which he reduced by storm, but which Gregory II., bishop of Rome, assisted in retaking from him. This prince was equitable and munificent, always treated his subjects as his own children, and his only faults resulted from an insatiate desire of conquest. He was succeeded by his nephew Hildebrand, whom the Lombards deposed on account of his inability to govern, and bestowed the sovereignty on Rachis, duke of Friuli. This prince was universally esteemed for the suavity of his disposition and the sanctity of his manners ; but, after reigning a few years, he renounced his kingdom, and retired to the monastery of Monte Cassino, where he died.

On the resignation of Rachis the Lombards bestowed the crown on his brother Astolph, who was equally admired for his courage in action and his prudence in council, and who, after reducing Ravenna and some other places, threatened to plunder Rome. The pope, greatly alarmed, prevailed on Pepin, king of France, to espouse his cause by making war on the Lombards. Accordingly Pepin entered Italy at the head of a numerous army, and compelled Astolph to restore Ravenna and the other places which he had taken.

671

A.D.

701

A.D.

712

A.D.

744

A.D.

749

A.D.

On the demise of this prince, Desiderius, duke of Tuscany, assumed the regal title, and married his two daughters to Charles and Carloman, who had succeeded Pepin on the throne of France. However, Desiderius having a dispute with Adrian the pope, Charlemagne entered Italy and attacked the Lombards with such irresistible fury that they fled before him in the utmost consternation.

**756**  
A.D. Desiderius took refuge in Pavia, and was compelled, after a long and obstinate resistance, to surrender the city to the royal besieger, who sent him and his unfortunate family prisoners to France, and abolished the kingdom of the Lombards in Italy, after they had possessed that country for the space of 281 years.

**774**  
A.D.

## CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

The Longobardi, or Lombards, invade Italy ...	A.D. 568	Invasion of the Franks repelled by Autharis	A.D. 584
Kingdom of the Lombards founded in Northern Italy by Alboin.....	„ 570	Invasion of Italy by Charlemagne, and subversion of Lombard kingdom.....	„ 774

## LOMBARD KINGS IN ITALY.

Alboin .....	A.D. 568	Bertharit (restored).....	A.D. 671
Clepho .....	„ 573	Cunibert.....	„ 686
Autharis .....	„ 575	Luitbert.....	„ 700
Agilulph.....	„ 591	Ragimbert.....	„ 701
Adaloald .....	„ 615	Aribert II.....	„ 701
Arioald .....	„ 625	Ansprand .....	„ 712
Rotharis .....	„ 636	Luitprand .....	„ 712
Rodoald .....	„ 652	Hildebrand .....	„ 744
Aribert I. ....	„ 653	Rachis.....	„ 744
Bertharit and Godebert	„ 660	Astolph .....	„ 749
Grimoald .....	„ 662	Desiderius .....	„ 756

## 8. THE SCYTHIANS.

The Scythians, unlike the Celts, were of Turanian origin, belonging to the great race which took its rise in the great eastern plateau or table-land of Central Asia, and thence spread northwards over the great plains of Northern Asia and North-Eastern Europe. They anciently inhabited a prodigious tract of country, which extended from the 25th to the 110th degree of east longitude, and was divided into

European and Asiatic Scythia, including the two Sarmatias. The Scythians were styled the "Fathers of Nations," and as the Celts were supposed to be the descendants of Gomer, the eldest son of Japheth, so the Scythians were imagined to be the offspring of Magog, the second son of Japheth. In migrating into Europe the posterity of Gomer turned toward the north-west, and these spread themselves towards north-east into both Scythias.

The Scythians, or Tatars, as they are called in modern times, were divided into four great races, the Mongolians, who are found in the great table-land to the north of China proper; the Tunguses, occupying the north-eastern part and Peninsula of Asia; the Tschudes, Fins, or Ugrians, which overspread the Arctic regions of Asia and Europe to the eastern shores of the Baltic; and the Turks, who occupied what is now called Independent Tartary, and spread thence over the plains of South Eastern Europe, making their way thither by the north coast of the Caspian Sea, the northern slopes of the Caucasus, and the Euxine or Black Sea. To this division of the Scythians belonged the tribes known in history as the Alani or Alans, and the Huns.

The Scythians were divided into numerous tribes, each governed by its chief, after the patriarchal fashion and separate collections of these tribes were governed by princes called Khans, chosen first of all for achievements in war, or in consequence of their power, which rendered them superior to the other chiefs of the nation. Eventually the principle of succession among the khans as that of the chief of each tribe became that of hereditary descent from father to son. The justice, temperance, simplicity of life, and contempt of riches, which the Scythians uniformly exhibited, almost precluded the necessity of public rewards and punishments. They conveyed their families from place to place in covered waggons which were drawn by oxen or horses, and contained all their furniture. They esteemed their numerous flocks as their greatest wealth, from supplying them with wholesome beverage and warm apparel. Some of the Scythian tribes, however, were represented as of so fierce and cruel a disposition as even to feast on the flesh of their vanquished enemies.

At the funeral of a khan or monarch the royal corpee, being carefully embalmed, was placed in a chariot, and conveyed from one tribe to another through all parts of the

kingdom. The people of each tribe imitated the royal Scythians in their mournful ceremonies,\* and accompanied the hearse to the next province, till it had gone the whole round of the kingdom. The body was then deposited in a large square hole, on a bed encompassed with spears, and covered with timber. A canopy was then spread over the monument, and the favourite wives, head cook, groom, waiter, and messenger, with some horses, were strangled, and deposited under it for the service of the deceased sovereign. Some golden cups, and other necessary utensils, were thrown into the vacant spaces, and the earth was formed into a high mound or an artificial mountain. At the expiration of the year fifty young Scythians, and as many horses, were strangled, and their bellies stuffed with straw; the bodies of the men were fastened upon their horses by an iron stake, and the horses placed round the royal monument.

The Scythians worshipped a plurality of gods and goddesses, among which were many of the divinities of the Greek and Roman mythology; but their favourite deity was Mars, to whom they consecrated their finest groves, and reared an altar in every district.

The warlike temper and exploits of this people were universally dreaded by their contemporaries. It is said that they drank the blood of the first captive they took in war; that having flayed their vanquished foes, they stretched, dried, and tanned their skins, which they applied to various purposes, and that they converted the skulls into drinking-cups. Their manufactures consisted chiefly in building waggons for their families, in tanning leather for their quivers, bucklers, &c., and in fabricating their own weapons. Their mode of life was altogether incompatible with commerce. They were remarkably abstemious, and abhorred the vice of drunkenness.

When they had to cross a river they laid their saddle and weapons upon a skin filled with cork, and so well sewn that not a drop of water could penetrate it; they then laid themselves down upon it, and taking hold of the horse by the tail, made him swim to the opposite shore. They were remarkable for the strength and fidelity of their friendship, which they usually confirmed with certain ceremonies; and

\* These consisted in cutting off a part of the right ear, shaving the head, and piercing the left hand with an arrow.



as they were warm and faithful in their friendship, so were they fierce and vindictive in revenge. The Scythians were a very populous nation. Their climate, exercise, temperance, and other advantageous circumstances, rendered them hardy, prolific, and long-lived.

Many stories are told by ancient writers about some of the Scythian princes, but as little credence can be given to them, it is as well to omit them. One of the best known and most famous of the Scythian sovereigns was their queen Tomyris. This woman was a Scythian heroine, whom Cyrus the Great demanded in marriage ; but she refusing him, that prince led his army against the Massagetæ, who were under her dominion, and lost his life.

Jancyrus was a haughty and magnanimous prince, who, when the Persian heralds demanded of him earth and water, sent to Darius a bird, a mouse, a frog, and five arrows, without any farther application. The Persian monarch immediately supposed that this present was sent in token of submission ; but Gobryas, who knew the Scythians better than his master, interpreted it to denote that the Persians must not expect to elude the effects of Scythian valour, unless they could fly like birds, plunge under water like frogs, or bury themselves into the earth like mice. This explanation was soon justified, and the Scythians obtained a signal victory over the Persian army.

Atheas, a king of the European Scythians, obtained from Philip II., king of Macedon, considerable assistance against an invasion with which he was threatened by the Istrians ; and when the enemy, terrified by the preparations of Philip, desisted from their design, he pretended that he owed him no recompense, because no battle had taken place. Philip, incensed at this ingratitude, signified to the Scythian king that he had made a vow to erect a statue to Hercules at the mouth of the Ister. Atheas, suspecting his real design, answered that, if he sent the statue, it should be carefully erected and preserved ; but that, if he entered the Scythian territories at the head of an army, the statue should be melted and cast into arrows to be used against himself. Philip paid no attention to these proud menaces, and an obstinate battle ensued in which the Scythians were vanquished, and in which 20,000 women and children were made prisoners. Philip sent 20,000 mares into Macedonia. As a proof of the sim-

plicity and poverty of the Scythians it is observable that neither gold, silver, nor jewels were found among the plunder. The Scythians do not appear to have been known collectively as a nation under this name long after the commencement of the first century before the Christian Era.

### (1.) SARMATIANS.

This numerous and warlike nation possessed the extensive tract of land which comprehends the present Poland, Russia and great part of Tartary: they possessed, in fact, all the land between the Vistula and the Caspian Sea. The Sarmatians were divided into several tribes, each of which was governed by its own king. The same depravity and vices are attributed to them as to the Heruli. They entered Thrace in 64 A.D., and Moesia in 69 A.D.; but on both occasions were defeated and driven back across the frontier, after doing much damage. They were repeatedly defeated in their attacks and invasions of the empire by the Roman emperors, and notably by Constantine the Great, in 322 A.D. Subsequently, in 368 A.D., when war broke out between the Goths and Sarmatians, he assisted the latter; and when they were defeated by the Goths two years later, he permitted many thousands of the fugitives to settle in Illyricum and Italy. After taking part in the subsequent invasions of Italy and Gaul in 378 and 407 by the Goths and other barbarian tribes, they were subdued by Attila. At his death, in 453 A.D., they recovered their liberty, but were ultimately conquered by the Goths and absorbed by their conquerors.

### (2.) HUNS.

It is supposed that the Huns were an offshoot of the Iranian race, which was originally established in the great eastern plain of Central Asia; and that, having migrated from their native country, they established themselves in that part of Asiatic Sarmatia, which bordered on the Palus Mæotis or the Tanais, or, to use modern names, the Sea of Azoff and the Don. They were divided into several tribes, but were comprised under the general name of Huns.

Historians describe the Scythian Huns as a hardy, warlike and ferocious people, who subsisted entirely on roots, or on

flesh and milk yielded by their cattle and horses ; lived in movable tents or huts, which they carried with them as they wandered from place to place ; and professed the utmost contempt for the conveniences of civilized life. Their method of government, and customs, and institutions were the same as those of the Scythians, which have been already described. The Alani, or Alans, who occupied the northern slope of the Caucasus, were closely akin to the Huns, if not a tribe of them. Their first excursion in quest of new settlements, was about 376 A.D., when, having passed the Sea of Azoff, they made a dreadful slaughter among the Visigoths and Ostrogoths, and took possession of that vast tract of country which extends from the Don to the Danube.

Attila, king of the Huns, having subjugated most of the neighbouring nations, conceived the daring design of seizing the Roman empire ; and passing the Danube, he made himself master of several cities and fortresses, ravaged the country as far as the interior of Gaul with fire and sword. Attila was finally defeated on the plain of Chalons, in Gaul, by the combined forces of the Romans, Franks, and Visigoths, in 451 A.D. ; but on his retreat he menaced Rome and compelled Theodosius to conclude a peace on disadvantageous terms. In the reign of Charlemagne the Huns were possessed of Dacia, Mœsia, and both the Pannonias, and were finally subdued by that prince, about the year 794.

The Hungarians now living in Hungary, otherwise called Magyars, are not, as is generally supposed, descended from the Huns, but from the Ugri, or Ungri, a Turanian race from the Baltic, who, under their chief, Arpad, established themselves in the country in 889 A.D.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Migration of the Huns		Defeat of Attila in Gaul A.D.	451
from Eastern Asia to		Defeat of the Huns by	
the Sea of Azoff, &c. A.D.	90	Charlemagne.....	794
Invasion of Hungary by		Arpad and Ugrians settle	
the Huns .....	376	in Hungary .....	889

#### (3.) BULGARIANS.

This numerous and warlike nation is said to have come, about the year 485, from Asiatic Scythia to the Don. and to

have removed thence to the banks of the Danube: Having made an irruption into Thrace and Macedonia, they formed an establishment in the territory bounded by the Black Sea, Roumania, and Macedonia; and from this centre, for more than five hundred years, they attacked the Greek empire on all sides, and seized and secured the duchy of Benevento, in Italy. At length, the emperor Basil II. completely subjugated Bulgaria, after defeating the Bulgarians in the battle of Zetunium, in 1014 A.D. Four years after this he made Bulgaria a province of the Greek empire, but permitted the Bulgarians to live under their own kings, whom he obliged to pay tribute to the emperors of Constantinople.

The Bulgarians twice broke into revolt against the Greek emperors, in 1040 and 1186, and on the latter occasion established a second monarchy, which lasted till about 1258. In 1271, Stephen IV., king of Hungary, having defeated the Bulgarians, compelled them to acknowledge him as their sovereign; and hence Stephen and his successors were called "kings of Hungary and Bulgaria;" and this title, with the Hungarian kingdom, passed to the princes of the house of Austria. In 1396, Bulgaria became subject to the Turks, and was reduced to a province of the Turkish empire by Bajazet.

#### CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY.

Settlement of Bulgarians on the Danube	A.D. 485	the Eastern emperor Basil II. in the battle of Zetunium	A.D. 1014
The country between the Hæmus mountains and the Danube conquered by the Bulgarians	„ 678	Bulgaria made a province of the Greek empire	„ 1018
Nicephorus defeated and slain by the Bulgarians	„ 811	Independence of Bulgaria renewed	„ 1186
Christianity introduced into Bulgaria	„ 861	Conquest of Bulgaria by Stephen IV. of Hungary	„ 1271
Constantinople taken and plundered by Simeon, king of Bulgaria	„ 921	Conquest of Bulgaria by the Turkish sultan Bajazet	„ 1369
Bulgarians defeated by			

THE END.

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